

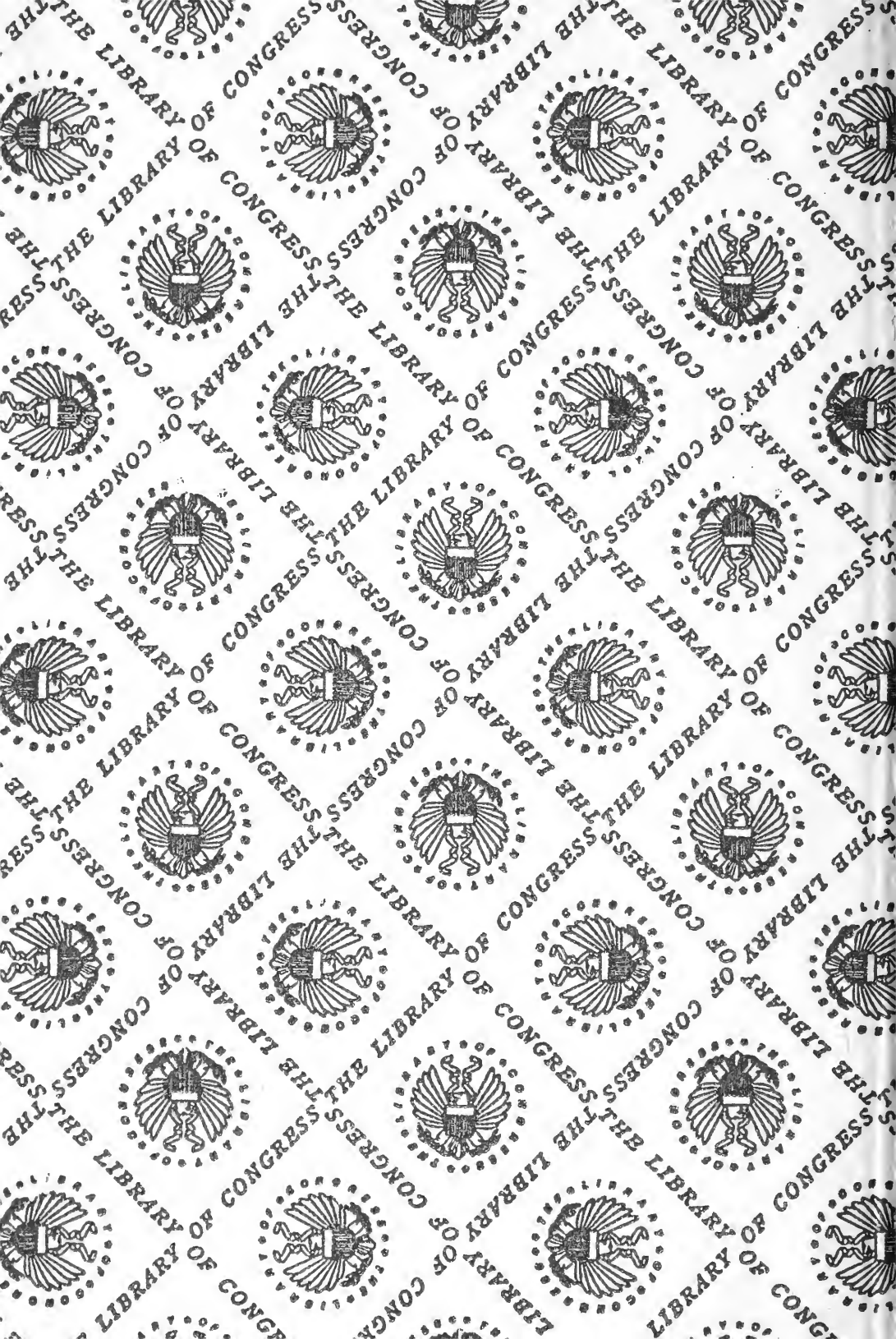
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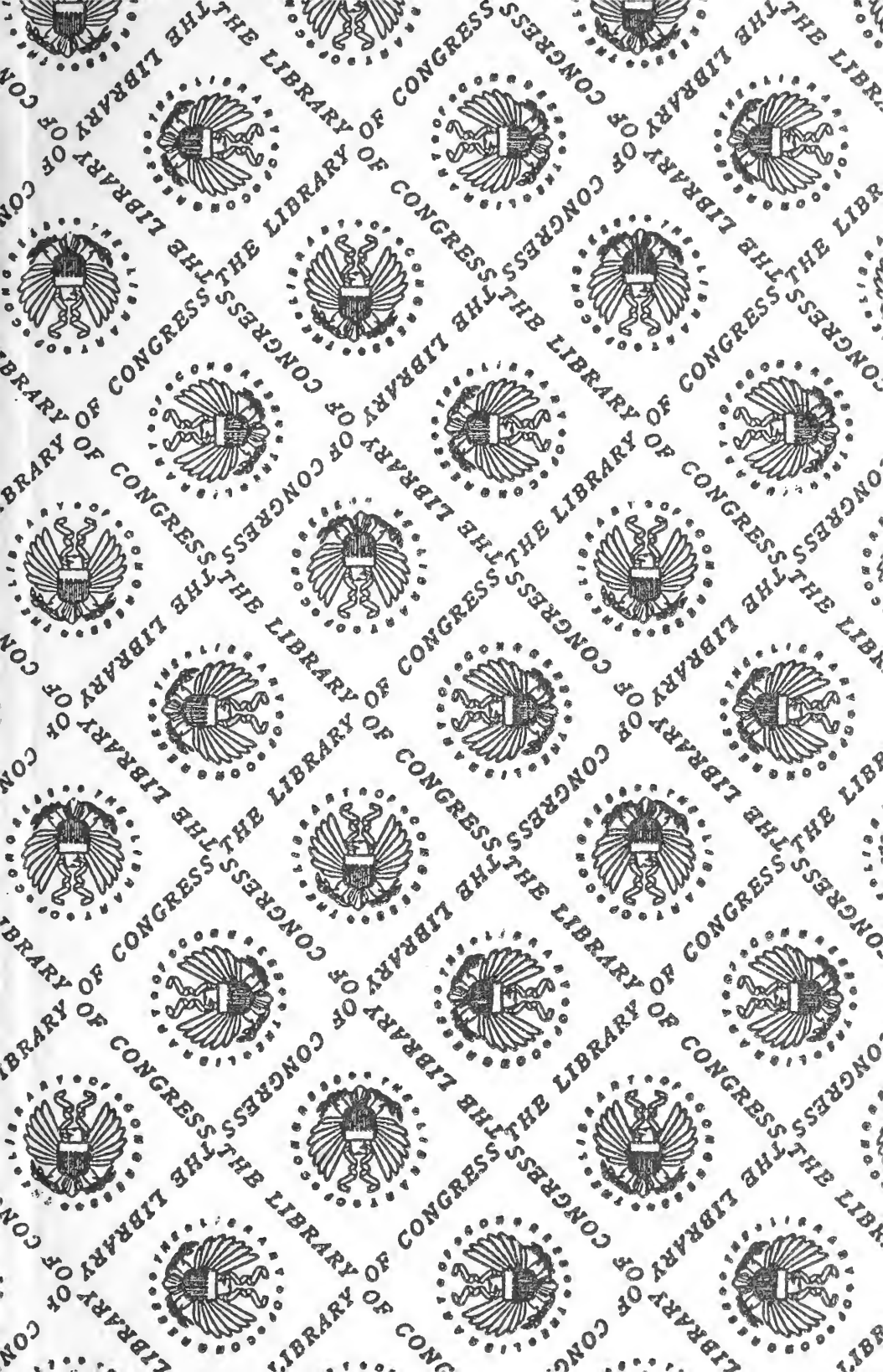
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A

HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

BY

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BOSTON

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PREFACE.

THIS work is designed as a text-book in English history for those who desire a course of moderate extent. Though comparatively brief, it omits no essential facts in the historical narrative, and it gives sufficient prominence to those features whose importance entitles them to such a consideration. The basis of the work is the chapter on England in the well-known "Elements of History" by Dr. Joseph E. Worcester, for many years a very popular text-book in extensive use in American schools. It has been thoroughly revised and rewritten, and enlarged by important additions and by a fuller treatment of such portions as seemed to demand it. Such corrections and modifications have also been made as had become necessary in view of the light of historical research and criticism since the original work was written.

The aim of the Editor has been to prepare a convenient manual, that shall serve as a guide to both teacher and pupil in an intelligent study of English history, and to present the subject in such a way as to remove from the pupil all inducements to make the study one of memorizing and routine, to assist the teacher in encouraging independent study and investigation, and to enable him to apply frequent tests of the pupils' work and knowledge.

Such suggestions and helps only have been furnished as will indicate the proper object and method of historical study, and make its pursuit one of pleasure and profit, and at the same

time will leave the teacher at liberty to follow whatever special plan may be suggested by his own individual preferences or habits of work.

Some features of the book will, it is believed, be of important assistance in its use. Instead of printed questions, against the use of which there are very grave objections, side-notes have been added, which give a key to the contents of the paragraph in which they are set, but which, nevertheless, require the learner to read carefully the whole text. Several new maps have been prepared to indicate important localities and events, and these maps are rendered specially clear and attractive by the absence of all unnecessary detail. A chronological table of sovereigns, convenient for reference, precedes the text; and at the close of the work will be found tables of leading historical events and of distinguished persons, a list of the British Possessions, the genealogy of English sovereigns, a list of the members of the royal family, and a brief account of the English Government. Outline synopses for review, with tables of contemporaneous history, have been inserted at convenient intervals, both for practical use and as suggestive models for teacher and pupil. An Index is added, which will be found a ready key to the names of all persons, places, and topics treated in the text.

The present revised edition of the work contains additions giving to portions of the narrative fuller treatment, and adding important matter and detail concerning the mode of life and social customs of the English people. It is believed that this feature will be regarded a valuable one by those who make history a study of the progress of a people.

SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS.

1. Encourage the pupil to read through carefully the entire lesson for the day, in connection with what immediately precedes, so as to obtain a general and a connected idea of the subject, which will enable the mind to grasp and retain the main facts of the lesson, without memorizing the words of the text.

2. Taking the side-notes as guides, use such questions of your own as will compel the learner to give the connected story of the lesson. Questions that will admit of very brief answers should be avoided.

3. Require the recitation to be given in the pupil's own language as far as possible, making allowance for age and other circumstances.

4. Make frequent use of the maps, and require sketch-maps and plans to be drawn upon the blackboard. A very few important dates only should be committed and often reviewed.

5. Show pupils how to extend their reading and researches into other books than their text-books, and to obtain information of the same events as told in the larger works of Macaulay, Hume, Lingard, Knight, Green's English People, &c.; and occasionally assign different topics to different pupils for fuller investigation.

6. Have frequent reviews and re-reviews, varying them so as to make them topical, chronological, and geographical.

7. Lessons should not be too lengthy. Their extent should depend upon the age of the pupils, the importance of the topic, and the minuteness and thoroughness with which it is to be treated.

8. Cultivate in the class a fondness for reading in history and biography.

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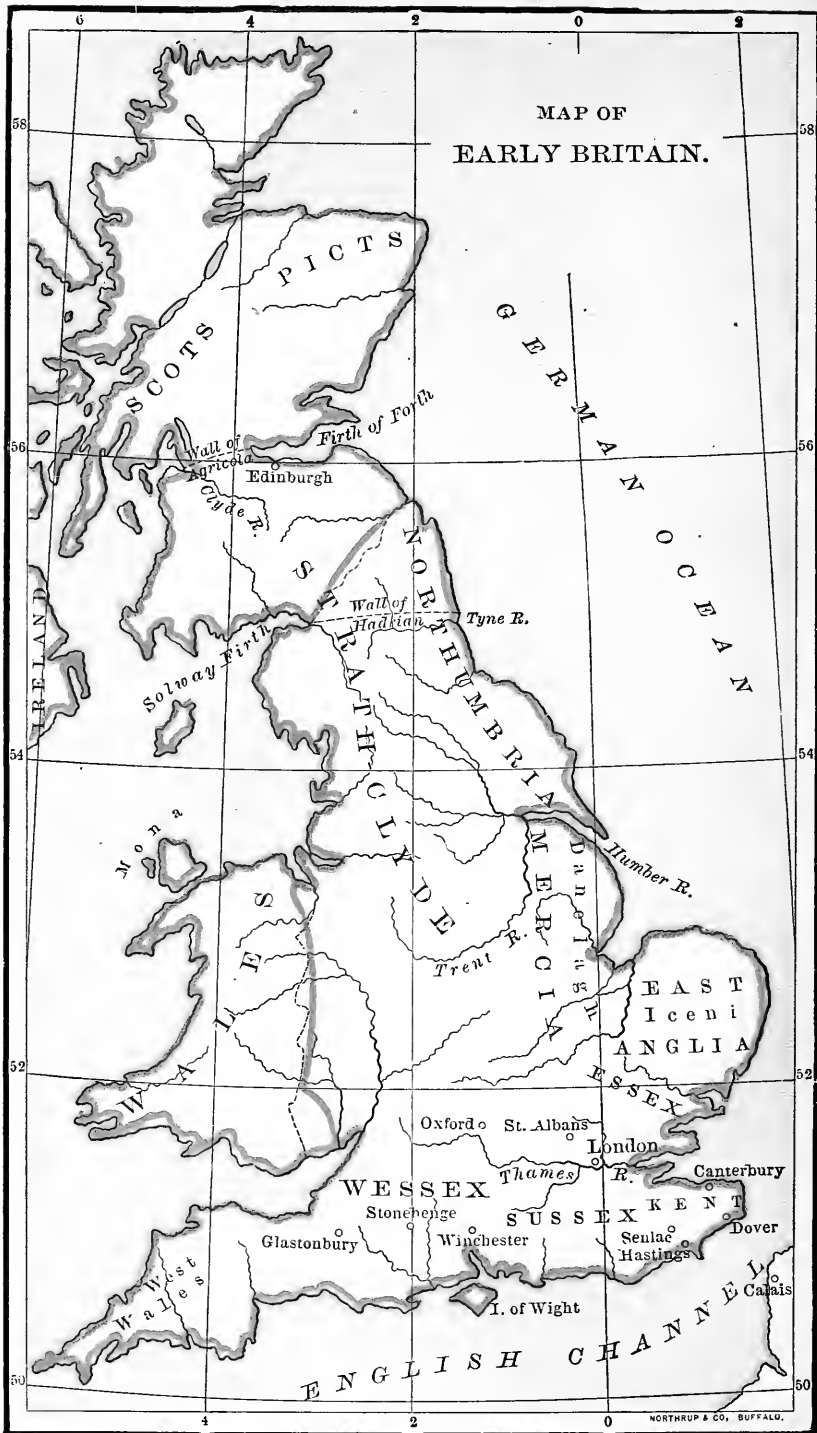
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SOVEREIGNS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

SAXON LINE.		Yrs.	PLANTAGENET FAMILY.		Yrs.
Egbert	.	827- 838-11	Edward III.	.	1327-1377-50
Ethelwolf	.	838- 857-20	Richard II.	.	1377-1399-22
Ethelbald	.	857- 860- 3	BRANCH OF LANCASTER.		
Ethelbert	.	860- 866- 6	Henry IV.	.	1399-1413-14
Ethelred I.	.	866- 871- 5	Henry V.	.	1413-1422- 9
Alfred	.	871- 901-30	Henry VI.	.	1422-1461-39
Edward the Elder	.	901- 925-24	BRANCH OF YORK.		
Athelstan	.	925- 941-16	Edward IV.	.	1461-1483-22
Edmund I.	.	941- 948- 7	Edward V.	.	1483 74 days.
Edred	.	948- 955- 7	Richard III.	.	1483-1485- 2
Edwy	.	955- 959- 4	TUDOR FAMILY.		
Edgar	.	959- 975-16	Henry VII.	.	1485-1509-24
Edward the Martyr	.	975- 978- 3	Henry VIII.	.	1509-1547-38
Ethelred II.	.	978-1016-38	Edward VI.	.	1547-1553- 6
Edmund II.	.	1016-1017- 1	Mary	.	1553-1558- 5
DANISH LINE.			Elizabeth	.	1558-1603-45
Canute I.	.	1017-1036-19	STUART FAMILY.		
Harold I.	.	1036-1039- 3	James I.	.	1603-1625-22
Canute II.	.	1039-1041- 2	Charles I.	.	1625-1649-24
Edward (Saxon)	.	1041-1065-24	The Commonwealth	.	1649-1660-11
Harold II. (Saxon)	.	1065-1066- 1	Charles II.	.	1660-1685-25
NORMAN FAMILY.			James II.	.	1685-1688- 3
William I.	.	1066-1087-21	William and Mary	.	1688-1702-14
William II.	.	1087-1100-13	Anne	.	1702-1714-12
Henry I.	.	1100-1135-35	HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.		
Stephen	.	1135-1154-19	George I.	.	1714-1727-13
PLANTAGENET FAMILY.			George II.	.	1727-1760-33
Henry II.	.	1154-1189-35	George III.	.	1760-1820-60
Richard I.	.	1189-1199-10	George IV.	.	1820-1830-10
John	.	1199-1216-17	William IV.	.	1830-1837- 7
Henry III.	.	1216-1272-56	Victoria	.	1837-1901-64
Edward I.	.	1272-1307-35	Edward VII.	.	1901
Edward II.	.	1307-1327-20			



MAP OF EARLY BRITAIN.



HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

PART I.

ENGLAND BEFORE 'THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

— A.D. 1066.

CHAPTER I.

EARLY BRITAIN.

GREAT BRITAIN is the geographical name of the island which comprises England, Scotland, and Wales. In a political sense it includes also Ireland and several other islands and countries in various parts of the world, and is called the United Kingdom of Great Britain; also the British Empire.

2. The Island of Britain was known to the ancients several centuries before the Christian era, and was visited by the Phœnician and Carthaginian traders, who obtained from the natives various commodities, such as skins, lead, and tin. Tin was used with copper in forming bronze, — an article in extensive use among the ancient Oriental nations.

3. The early name of the country was Albion, signifying White Isle ; suggested, probably, by the chalk-cliffs on its southern coast. The Greeks and Romans called it Britain (Britannia), or land of tin. Some writers, however, derive this name from *brith*, or *brit*, painted ; because the inhabitants were accustomed to paint or stain their bodies with a blue dye.

4. The first known inhabitants of Britain were of the Celtic race, who at an early period came over from the neighboring continent, — probably from Gaul, now France. The present inhabitants of Wales are supposed to be regular descendants from a branch of Celts called Cimri. Though now called Welsh by their English neighbors and others, they still call themselves Kimry, or Cimri.

5. The Celts were a lively, quick-witted people, though rude and barbarous, possessing little property except their arms and cattle, and frequently moving from place to place in pursuit of game, pasturage, and plunder. They gave little attention to the cultivation of the soil, but lived mostly upon wild fruits and the flesh of their herds and flocks. Their dwellings — constructed of timber, wicker-work, and thatch — were circular in form, with a conical roof ; and were built in groups, and surrounded by felled trees.

6. The people were divided into many petty tribes, each with its king ; and these tribes were often at war with one another and with their neighbors, in which they displayed much bravery and skill. They used wicker shields, swords and spears of iron and bronze, and war-chariots armed with scythes and hooks, and drawn by well-trained horses.

7. The religion of the early Britons, called Druidism, was a cruel superstition, which entered into all the affairs of life, and exerted a powerful influence in the formation of their character and institutions. The priests, called Druids, had the entire control of all religious rites and affairs,

the administration of justice, the education of youth, and the settlement of difficulties between tribes and nations. They exercised almost absolute power over the people, and punished severely any refusal to submit to their decisions, or to carry out their commands.

8. The Druids worshipped several deities, and some of the heavenly bodies ; taught the doctrine of the transmigration of souls ; and on great occasions offered human sacrifices, confining their victims in wicker cages, and setting them on fire. The doctrines and mysteries of the ^{Doctrines} and worship. ^{and worship.} Druids were not committed to writing ; and their dwellings were in secluded forests of oak, which, with the mistletoe growing upon the trees, were held very sacred. At Stonehenge, on Salisbury Plain, in Wiltshire, Southern England, are still to be seen the supposed remains of a Druidic temple, consisting of an altar, surrounded by two circular rows of upright stones, several feet in height.

9. There were bards who celebrated in song and with music the genealogy and heroic deeds of princes and leaders, and who kept alive among the people the love of liberty, ^{Bards and} and the courage and prowess which were so strikingly exhibited in all their conflicts and dealings with other tribes and nations. ^{prophets.} Prophets, also, pretended to foretell future events ; and astronomy was a prominent subject of instruction among the Druids. It is probable that these prophets made use of astrology and magic in their religious rites and ceremonies.

10. At evening on the 1st of May, when the fields had been sown, at the ripening of the crops in summer, and upon the completion of the harvest in autumn, the Druids ^{Festivals.} were accustomed to build fires, and offer sacrifices, upon high places, to secure the favor of their deities upon the products of their fields ; and from these practices have probably been derived the English festivals of May Day, Midsummer Eve, and Harvest Home, or All Halloween.

11. The Druids were numerous ; and although not, strictly speaking, the ruling class, they attained considerable intellectual development, and were evidently more powerful with the people than were the kings and chiefs ; and their influence was generally for peace and for the common welfare. They inculcated implicit obedience to their rulers and to all authority.

12. From the little that is found in recorded history regarding the Britons, it is supposed that they were a part of the great Indo-European emigration which took place from the East in remote antiquity, and spread over the greater part of Europe. They were probably not the first inhabitants of the country. In caves and mounds fragments of rude pottery and other relics have been found, which point to an untamed prehistoric race as the earlier occupants of the land, whom the Britons either exterminated, or drove northward.

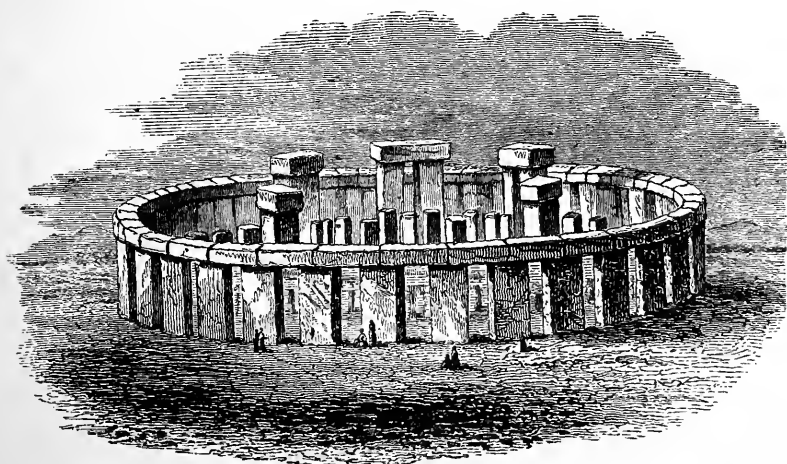
13. When the Britons were first known to the other European nations, their mode of life was rude and wild. The island was spoken of as a land of vast forests, in which bears, wolves, and deer were numerous. In the interior the tribes were migratory shepherds and herdsmen ; but near the seacoast, and especially on the southern and south-eastern shores nearest the continent, where they had probably come in contact with other peoples, they seemed to have taken some of the first steps towards civilization. Instead of the rude and scant clothing of those dwelling inland, they made a kind of coarse cloth, and wore tunics and trousers. They also built better habitations, and were more permanent in their places of abode. Vast herds of cattle roamed the forests and pasture-lands ; and horses were raised in great numbers, and trained with great skill.

14. In the mining of tin, lead, and copper, they were very successful ; and these and other commodities produced by the natives brought traders from Tyre, Sidon, Carthage, and other Eastern countries, which must have

brought the people in contact with customs and manners more civilized than their own. The preparation and movement of the huge blocks of stone used in the Druidic temples, and the manufacture of war chariots, and swords of tin and copper, are evidence of some knowledge of the mechanic arts. Pins, needles, spoons, and many other articles of common use, made of bone, bronze, and jet, have been found, which evidently belong to this period. Rings and bars of iron, and coins of bronze, were used for money.

15. In modern English there are but few remains of the Celtic language, and those are found in some names of places, and perhaps in a few other words; but the Welsh language is a modernized branch of the British Language. tongue. This language has a rich vocabulary, and the remains of its early poetry are remarkable for striking images and expressions.

16. Another branch of the Celts, the Gaels, are supposed to have settled in Ireland, and afterwards in Scotland. Some of the principal tribes were the Scots, so called from *scuites*, or *sguists* (wanderers); the Caledonians, or The Gaels. dwellers in the forests; and the Picts, or painted people, — a clan of the Caledonians.



"STONEHENGE RESTORED."

CHAPTER II.

BRITAIN UNDER ROMAN OCCUPATION.

B.C. 55 to A.D. 420,—475 years.

THE inhabitants of the southern part of Britain made greater progress in the arts of civilization than their northern neighbors; and became so famous in war, that they were invited across the channel by the Gauls to assist them in their wars with the Roman general, Julius Cæsar. Cæsar made this a pretext for invading Britain; but his real motive, probably, was to carry his arms into a new country, and to add it to the dominion of the Roman Empire.

2. In the summer season, B.C. 55, Cæsar, with eighty ships and ten thousand men, approached the coast of Britain, near the present site of Dover, where his landing was fiercely resisted by the natives at the water's edge. After a severe conflict the Romans landed, drove back the Britons, and erected fortifications for their own protection and defence. A treaty of peace was made, but was soon after broken by the natives when they saw that a violent storm had destroyed several of the ships in which Cæsar and his army arrived, also others which had followed him from Gaul with men and supplies. After one or two more sharp engagements the Britons were again defeated, and both parties gladly made another treaty of peace and friendship. Cæsar immediately refitted a few of his shattered ships, placed his army on board, and returned to Gaul, having been in Britain only about three weeks, and at no time very far out of sight of the shore.

3. In the following year Cæsar returned with a large force to continue his conquests, and to chastise the faithless Britons who had failed to keep their stipulations. The natives opposed him in large numbers under Caswollon', called by the Romans Cassivelau'nus, — a powerful chief, who had conquered several neighboring tribes, and who was now at the head of a kind of confederacy of states. But the Britons could not long withstand the Roman mode of warfare. Cæsar pursued them across the Thames, took their capital, St. Alban's, made a treaty of peace with Caswollon, and with many prisoners returned again to Gaul. The results of Cæsar's two expeditions to Britain were simply the occupation of a small part of the island for a short time. He cannot be called its conqueror.

Cæsar's
second inva-
sion.

4. For nearly a century Britain was unmolested by the Romans, and during this period some of the native kings were conspicuous in history. One of them, Cunobeline, or Cymbeline, furnished the name and subject of one of Shakspeare's plays. Some of Cymbeline's coins, bearing his own image and inscription, are still in existence.

Britain
under native
kings.

5. About A.D. 43 the Emperor Claudius sent an army to Britain under Plautius (Plau'-she-us), who made extensive conquests; and Claudius himself visited the island, and received the submission of some of the vanquished natives: but the war of subjugation, with great cruelties on both sides, continued for many years. Car'adoc, or Carac'tacus, a powerful Welsh chief, successfully defied the Roman power for a long time, but was finally defeated, and sent as prisoner to Rome.

Claudius.

Caradoc.

6. In the reign of Nero, Suetonius overran the country, and captured Mona (now Anglesey), — an island on the coast of Wales, and the principal seat of the Druids. The Britons made a desperate defence; the women, with dishevelled hair and burning torches, rushing down to the water's edge, and mingling in the affray. But the Romans were

Suetonius;
Mona.

victorious, and the destruction of the place was complete. The sacred groves were cut down, and the Druids were burned in the fires they had lighted to consume the invaders.

7. During this expedition of Suetonius, Bo-ad-i-ce'a, sister of Caradoc, and queen of the Ice'ni, one of the tribes in the eastern part of the island, took the field; at the head of a large army, to revenge the shameful treatment she and her daughters had received at the hands of the Romans. With great boldness she attacked and captured London, which had then become an important trading-town, and put seventy thousand Romans to death. But her victory was of short duration; for she was soon after defeated by Suetonius, when a merciless slaughter of eighty thousand Britons — men, women, and children — took place. To avoid capture, Boadicea ended her life with poison.

8. But the Roman power was more fully established in Britain by Agric'ola, who came to the island about A.D. 78. His victorious legions traversed the country even to the foot of the Grampian Hills; and he sent a fleet around the north of Scotland, and down the west coast, thus first establishing to the Romans the fact that Britain is an island. Under this ruler the people were encouraged to cultivate the soil, to learn some of the useful arts, and to adopt a more civilized mode of life.

9. But the occupation of the country by the Romans was maintained principally by the presence of their armies, and at times with varied success. Frequent raids took place from the northern part of the island by the Picts, or Caledonians, and by the Scots, who had come over from the north of Ireland. These people were wandering tribes of shepherds and hunters, and they gave the Romans and Britons much trouble. To prevent these inroads, Agricola established a line of forts, and Antoni'nus constructed a wall of earth and stone across the country from the Frith of Forth to the mouth of the Clyde. Some years later

another wall was erected by Hádrian from Solway Frith to the Tyne, and subsequently this was strengthened by an additional wall by the Emperor Sevérus.

10. Britain became a flourishing province under Roman occupation, which covered a period of about four hundred and seventy-five years. It was usually the policy and **Roman influ-** practice of the Romans to plant their own institu- **ence.** tions, as far as possible, in their colonies, and to furnish from their own numbers the principal officers for government and administration. The people of Britain were generally submissive from necessity, but were never fully subdued. Though reduced at times to a state of servitude, the severity of their treatment was much mitigated by some of their masters; and the government provided for them by the Romans was probably better than they had ever been able to establish among themselves. The petty tribes had formerly wasted their strength, and reduced their numbers, by their numerous wars with each other, and in that way had been prevented from making progress and improvement. They had no national capital or centre, and no strong bond of union; but under Roman control their tribal differences were lessened, and they became more united as a whole people.

11. The Romans were road-builders; and they constructed many excellent military roads in Britain, connecting their most important towns and ports; and so thoroughly were **Roads, &c.** they made, that the course of a portion of them can be traced at the present day, and they constitute some of the principal thoroughfares of England. Lighthouses were erected along the coast for the guidance of the mariner.

12. The towns of the Britons were greatly improved under Roman influence; and they were adorned with temples, theatres, market-places, baths, and palaces. It is supposed **Towns and** that Westminster Abbey, in London, is built upon **their ruins.** the former site of a temple erected to Apollo, and that St. Paul's Cathedral stands on the spot once occupied by the Roman

temple of Diana. Modern excavations for sewers and deep foundations in London, and other places in Britain, frequently reveal the sites and ruins of Roman villas, camps, forts, walls, gates, and pavements; and the great variety of articles in common use thus found, and now preserved in museums, give us some indications of the extent to which the conquerors introduced their mode of life among the Britons. There are artisans' tools, balances for weighing, wheel-tires, bronze horse-bells, ploughs, locks and keys, and iron nails, swords and shields, spear-heads, and iron manacles. Among articles for household and personal use, are lamps, vases, and drinking-cups, vials, and other glasswares, shoes and their latchets, buckles, armlets, beads, rings, brooches, pins, needles, hairpins, knitting-needles, and spoons, ear and tooth picks, and knives. Mile-stones to mark the Roman ways have been discovered; also cinerary urns, and fragments of a great variety of pottery.

In some parts of London the Roman pavements and other remains are found about eighteen feet below the present surface of the streets.

13. More attention was given than formerly to the style and appearance of dwelling-houses, and they were much better adapted for the comfort and convenience of their occupants. Many Britons travelled in Gaul, and visited Rome, and came home with improved ideas of living. Glass windows were introduced, and the interior of the walls of houses were painted. Plates, goblets, and urns must have been in use, as fragments of them have been occasionally unearthed. Leaden water-pipes are found; and wells are now in existence, filled with water, which were dug by the Romans.

14. The practice of painting their bodies, common among the early Britons, was now discarded, and the people were clad in better garments. Schools were established by Agricola and others, and the British youth of the higher class were taught the Roman tongue; but the common people, in their own affairs and intercourse, stubbornly refused

to use the language of their masters, but still employed their own vernacular, the Celtic. The sciences were studied, and the arts cultivated, and British workmen acquired a reputation for skill that made their services in demand on the Continent.

15. In mining, the Romans improved upon the methods of the Britons, and became producers of iron, gold, and silver, in addition to lead, tin, and copper, formerly worked by the natives. At Worcester there have been discovered the remains of a Roman iron-furnace; and near it, as well as at Birmingham and other localities, are now found large heaps of cinders and waste thrown off from such furnaces. Rusty Roman coins are also found in considerable numbers among these ruins. These metals, together with chalk and lime, were exported in large quantities to the various provinces of the Roman Empire. Mining.

16. After the Romans so effectually vanquished the Druids, they introduced their own religion among the natives of the island. But in course of time Christianity began to get a foothold in Britain. At what particular time it was introduced is a matter of much uncertainty: perhaps it took place in the second century. In the fourth century British bishops and ecclesiastics became known for their learning and influence; and at a religious council at Arles, in France, bishops were present as representatives from Britain. It is also said that the Bible was translated into the British tongue for common use. Some of the violent persecutions of Christians at Rome by the Pagan emperors extended to Britain; and St. Alban is said to have been an heroic example of Christian martyrdom. Christianity.

17. But, early in the fifth century, vast hordes of barbarians from Northern Europe were threatening Rome and her provinces; and the empire gave many signs of early dissolution. These alarming dangers compelled her to call home her forces; and about A.D. 420 the last of her legions left Britain, and returned no more. The Romans recalled.

CHAPTER III.

SAXON CONQUESTS.—THE HEPTARCHY.

420 to 827, — 407 years.

NO sooner had the Romans left the island than the Picts and Scots renewed their warfare upon the Britons. The latter had lost somewhat of their early warlike spirit, and were unable to repel their northern invaders. With a merciless foe on one side, and the ocean on the other, they applied to Rome for assistance ; but their request was refused.

2. During the last century or two of the Roman occupation, the east coast of Britain had often been visited by Saxon free-booters and pirates from the north-western part of Germany. They had made some settlements, and had caused the Romans considerable annoyance and trouble. In their dire distress the Britons now turned to the Saxons for aid.

3. The history of this period is mingled with much that is probably but little more than wild romance. But the commonly-received account is, that a Saxon army, under the command of two brothers, Hengist and Horsa, — invited, perhaps, by the British prince Vor'tigern, — came over in A.D. 449 ; and by their assistance the Picts and Scots were driven back to their own territories.

4. The Saxons, finding the country superior to their own, invited over their countrymen from the continent ; and for some years there continued to arrive re-enforcements of Saxons, Jutes (Jutlanders), and Angles,

or Engles, from the southern part of Denmark. These people, in the course of time, took possession of Britain, reduced the inhabitants to submission, and compelled them to leave the country, or to retreat to the mountains for safety.

From the Angles is derived the name England ; that is, Angle-land.

5. Violent contests between the Saxons and the Britons took place, and the land was the scene of bitter strife for more than a hundred and fifty years. King Arthur, a British champion, was a most determined antagonist of the Saxons, and held them in check for many years, and is said to have defeated them in twelve different engagements. The history of this renowned prince and his Knights of the Round Table has been much celebrated in poetry and romance, but is regarded by many as fiction. Lord Bacon observes, that “in his acts there is enough of truth to make him famous, besides what is fabulous.” Some of the Celtic tribes were unconquered and unconquerable, and fled to the mountains of Wales, where their descendants are the present inhabitants of that country.

6. These Saxon invaders were heathen, and they endeavored to destroy whatever of Christianity was left in the island by the Romans. Churches were burned, bishops and priests were slain at the altar, and an indiscriminate massacre of the nobility and the people took place.

7. As the Saxon tribes came to Britain at different times and under different leaders, they did not form one united kingdom, but several petty states, varying at different times in number and extent. Seven of these leading states, or kingdoms, are known in history as the Saxon heptarchy ; and their names were, 1. Kent, the corner kingdom ; 2. Sussex, the South Saxons ; 3. Essex, the East Saxons ; 4. Wessex, the West Saxons ; 5. East Anglia, the land of the Angles in the East ; 6. Northumbria, the land north of the Uंबर, or Humber ; 7. Mercia, the border-land, or the land marched over.

Kent was settled by the Jutes ; Essex, Wessex, and Sussex, by the Saxons ; and East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria, by the Angles. The Britons and Scots called all these tribes Saxons, and they have been quite generally so called in history ; but among themselves they early adopted the general name of the English.

8. The establishment of these states occupied a period of about a century and a half ; and Kent, the first Saxon kingdom, was founded A.D. 457, by Hengist, in less than ten years after his first landing upon the island. Rowena, his beautiful daughter, married Vortigern, the British chief ; and she is said to have had great influence over her husband and her father in the stirring events of that period.

Kent occupied a small corner in the south-eastern part of Britain. It was a region of great fertility and of many natural advantages, and for more than a hundred years was an important and influential state. One of its kings best known in history was Ethelbert, who married Bertha, a Christian lady, and a daughter of Caribert, King of Paris. It was into this kingdom that Christianity was first introduced among the Saxons, probably about A.D. 597, by Augustine, a Benedictine monk sent from Rome for that purpose, with several companions, by Pope Gregory I. It is related that once, while passing through the market-place of Rome, Gregory, then a priest, observed some British slaves for sale, noticeable for their fair complexion and light hair. "Who are these?" said Gregory. "Angles," replied the slave-merchants. "Not Angles, but *Angels*, they shall be," replied Gregory ; and he formed the plan of sending the gospel to Britain, where it had once been introduced during the period of Roman occupation ; but it had since given way before the heathenism of the Saxons. Being elected Pope not long afterwards, he proceeded to carry out his project of missionary labor.

Ethelbert was at first opposed to the new religion, but afterwards became one of its first converts ; and his royal example

was soon followed by the greater part of his subjects. Augustine was made Archbishop of Canterbury, the Saxon capital, with supreme power over all the British churches; and that city has since continued the ecclesiastical metropolis of Great Britain. Not long afterwards, the spread of Christianity was quite rapid and general among the Saxons. The idols of their temples were destroyed, and the temples themselves converted into Christian churches. Meantime the Britons, or Welsh, occupying the western side of the island, who had been converted to Christianity by the Romans, had never fallen back to heathenism, but had continued in their new faith, and, with bishops and other officials, had kept up their separate ecclesiastical organizations.

Ethelbert reigned more than fifty years; and he subjugated several of the neighboring states after many fierce contests with Ceaulin (Keaulin), King of Wessex, and others. He prepared a code of written laws for his people, in which penalties for a long list of offences were prescribed with much minuteness; and it is said that the people were generally happy, and that property was well protected by law. His marriage with a French princess, and his intercourse with the ecclesiastics from Rome, naturally led him to encourage his subjects to cultivate an acquaintance with the people of France, Italy, and other countries upon the Continent, which undoubtedly had a civilizing influence upon his people. The reign of Ethelbert was beneficial to his subjects, and honorable to himself. But many of his successors were conspicuous only for their wars, their treachery, and their cruelty.

9. Sussex, south-west of Kent, was founded in 477 by Ella, a brave Saxon chief, upon whom the people bestowed the title of Bretwalda, or defender of Britain, thus showing his superiority in the confederacy of chieftains. Sussex.
This title was also borne by Ethelbert and six others. Cissa, the son of Ella, was said to have had a reign of the extraordinary length of seventy-six years.

10. Cerdic, another valiant Saxon, and a progenitor of the present royal family of England, founded Wessex in 519. This kingdom bordered upon the Celtic tribes who had
Wessex. been driven to the western side of the island, and who offered a most stubborn resistance to Saxon invasion, especially under the renowned Prince Arthur, who checked the advances of Cerdic. Wessex was a conspicuous state; and one of its kings, Ina, for nearly forty years was so distinguished for his humane treatment of the Britons, and for his excellent system of laws, that his reign is regarded as one of the most successful of the Heptarchy. Another sovereign, Egbert, afterwards united all the states in one kingdom.

11. Essex, including Middlesex, became a kingdom in 526; and one of its kings, Sebert, — a nephew of Ethelbert of Kent,
Essex. — is said to have built Christian churches to St. Peter and St. Paul in London, on the sites of the Roman temples to Apollo and Diana, where now stand Westminster Abbey and St. Paul's Cathedral.

12. North of the Humber was the little British state of Deira, and still farther north, and extending into Scotland, was
Northumbria. Bernicia. In the latter, Ida, a chief of the Angles, landed with many followers in 547, and subsequently the two states were united under the name of Northumbria. It was an important kingdom, with a varied and thrilling history, having many wars with the Picts, Scots, and Welsh, and was at times at the head of the Heptarchy. Its greatest king was Edwin, son of Ella, King of Deira. He married Ethelburga, daughter of Ethelbert of Kent, and did much for the improvement of his people. Under the influence of his wife and Paulinus, a bishop who had accompanied her from Kent, he embraced Christianity, and built a church on the site where now stands the famous York Minster. Paulinus was made Archbishop of York, the capital, successively, of Deira and Northumbria, and formerly also the capital of Roman Britain, and the residence of Hadrian, Severus, and other emperors

during their sojourn upon the island. Edwin is said to have built a stronghold on the site of the present Edinburgh Castle ; and from him the city took its name, which was originally Edwinesburg. Edwin was killed in a fierce battle which he fought with Penda, King of Mercia, and Cædwalla (Këdwálla), a Welsh chieftain.

13. Sigebert, King of East Anglia, which was founded in 575, established a school in 644, which afterwards became the University of Cambridge. East Anglia.

14. The midland state of the Heptarchy was Mercia, which began in 586 ; and its position exposed it to numerous wars with the other Saxon kingdoms, and with the Britons in Wales. It was the largest, and at times one of the most powerful, of the states. Mercia.

15. After the Heptarchy had continued for more than two centuries, Egbert, a descendant of Cerdic, ascended the throne of Wessex in 800. Owing to troubles in the kingdom, he had been an exile for some time at the court of Charlemagne (sharl-máhn) in France, where he had carefully studied the art of war and the science of government. He was warmly supported by the people, and by his prudence and valor soon succeeded in uniting all the kingdoms into one monarchy, in 827, under the name of England. But Egbert and several of his successors still called themselves Kings of Wessex. Some of the other states continued for a time to have kings or chiefs of their own ; but they were tributary to Egbert, who was the recognized head of the new kingdom. Egbert.

16. The history of the Heptarchy portrays the slow and toilsome steps by which the Saxon sea-rovers gained a footing in Britain, and laid the foundation of the English government and character. They were a people of indomitable courage and energy, knowing no defeat, and acknowledging no master. By sea and by land they exhibited the most astonishing intrepidity and daring ; and the ferocity with which they betook themselves to depredation, plunder, and cruelty, The Saxons.

made them the terror of every people among whom they appeared.

The early Saxons were of large size, with fair complexion, light hair, and blue eyes. They were intemperate in their habits, and often given to rioting and disorder. But after they had become accustomed to live in communities, and had abandoned somewhat their wandering habits and their piratical practices, and had come under the influences of Christianity, they began gradually to acquire habits of social order and of peace.

17. The government of the Saxons in Britain was not absolute. The king or chief was elected, though generally taken from the family of his predecessor; and usually
Government. the choice seemed to fall upon the most worthy one, without strict regard to nearness of kinship. He was chosen by the Witenagemote, or Witan, — an assembly of wise men composed of the nobles and higher orders, including, after the introduction of Christianity, the bishops and abbots. This body assisted the king in the affairs of state and in the administration of justice; while lower tribunals in the shires or counties attended to local affairs. Fines of different degrees were the usual penalties for all the various grades of misdemeanor and crime, even for the taking of human life. Women were comparatively well treated. They could sue and be sued, and inherit and sell property.

18. The people were divided into three classes, the highest of which comprised the nobles of high birth and
The people. official position, and the Thanes (Thegns), — a lower order, who owned or occupied considerable land, and who rendered service to the king and higher nobles.

The Freeman, called Churls (Ceorles), were principally husbandmen who occupied the land of the higher classes, for which they paid rent, chiefly in kind. They were obliged to serve in the army in case of invasion or war.

The slaves constituted the most numerous class, and were principally captives taken from the Celtic tribes in war and

plundering raids, and a few people who were sold into bondage on account of inability to pay their debts, or fines imposed for misdemeanor. They were subjected to severe labor in the household and on the farm, and were badly treated ; but they could buy their freedom if able to do so.

19. The religion of the Saxons, when they came to Britain, partook of their own wild and fierce nature. Woden was their principal god, who was the giver of warlike courage and victory ; and to him all the families of the kings traced their origin. Thor, like the Roman Jupiter, was the Thunderer, and the god of the sky and air ; and numerous other gods and goddesses were worshipped. The people believed in a future state, and thought those who fell in battle would enter at once the region of bliss, where they would be allowed to torment their enemies, and to quaff intoxicating drinks from the skulls of their fallen foes. They were very superstitious, and generally believed in witchcraft and fortune-telling. Religion.

In the common English names of the days of the week, we retain the names of some of the principal Saxon deities, to whose worship particular days were set apart. The sun and the moon give us Sunday and Monday ; Tuisco, Tuesday ; Wednesday and Thursday are named from Woden and Thor ; Friday from Freya, the wife of Woden ; and Seator, a marine deity, gives name to Saturday.

20. The Saxons cultivated the soil, and raised cattle, sheep, swine, and fowls, in abundance. They were also iron, gold, and silver smiths, and carpenters, shoemakers, bakers, and cooks. Their dwellings were rude huts for the common people ; but there were houses of more comfort and convenience for the higher classes. They wore tunics and cloaks of linen and wool, also shoes. The hair of the noblewomen was curled with irons, and that of the men was parted in the middle. The food consisted of meat, fish, wheat and barley bread, and fruits ; but the poorer classes were not able to use much meat or wheaten bread. Mead, ale, and sour milk Mode of life.

were the common drinks. Silver coins of this period are still in existence ; but they probably had none of gold, and perhaps not of copper.

21. There is no evidence that the Saxons brought a written language with them to Britain ; but, during the period of the Heptarchy, learning received some attention from a few of the higher classes, although the common people showed little fondness for knowledge or for books. Hence a few names only in literature have come down to us from this period. Gildas, a British historian, lived in the sixth century ; Cædmon (Kédmon), an Anglo-Saxon poet who wrote upon biblical and scripture subjects, died about 680 ; and Bede (since called the "Venerable Bede"), a very learned scholar, wrote an ecclesiastical history of the Angles early in the eighth century, and some other works, including a Saxon version of the Gospel of St. John.

Education
and litera-
ture.

CHAPTER IV.

SAXON KINGS.—DANISH INCURSIONS.

827-1017, — 190 years.

Egbert.	Alfred.	Edwy.
Ethelwolf.	Edward the Elder.	Edgar.
Ethelbald.	Athelstan.	Edward the Martyr.
Ethelbert.	Edmund I.	Ethelred II.
Ethelred I.	Edred.	Edmund II. (Ironside).

SCARCELY had **Egbert** established and regulated his infant monarchy (827) when he found himself assailed by formidable enemies in the Danes, or Northmen, whose depredations form a prominent feature in the early history of England, and who continued for upwards of two centuries to be a scourge to the country. The swift ships of these bold freebooters, bearing the ominous standard of the Black Raven, became the terror of every bay and inlet on the coast. The object of their early expeditions was plunder; but afterwards they began to make settlements, and to wage war with the people for the possession of the soil.

2. Egbert had fierce conflicts with the Danes; but, although once defeated by them, he finally gained a signal victory over them and their allies the Welsh. His death occurred soon after, and he was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf.

3. From 838 to 871 the throne was occupied successively by **Ethelwolf** and his three sons, **Ethelbald**, **Ethelbert**, and **Ethelred**. During these four reigns the country continued to be in a constant state of alarm

from the frequent and oftentimes sudden raids of the Danish adventurers and pirates, whose path was everywhere marked by robbery, burning, and murder.

4. The reign of **Alfred the Great**, the youngest son of Ethelwolf, and the sixth king of England, which began in 871, forms a distinguished era in the early history of the monarchy. In one year he defeated the Danes in eight battles. But by a new irruption they extended their ravages, and forced him to solicit a peace. He was compelled to seek his safety for many months in an obscure part of the country, disguised in the habit of a peasant; and lived in a herdsman's cottage as a servant. In this humble situation the herdsman's wife is said, on one occasion, to have ordered him to take care of some cakes that were baking by the fire; but he forgot his trust, and let them burn, for which she severely reprimanded him.

5. Success having rendered his enemies remiss, and his followers having gained some advantages, he left his retreat; and, in order to discover the state of the hostile army, he entered the Danish camp in the disguise of a harper. He excited so much interest by his musical talents, that he was introduced to Guthrun, the Danish prince, and remained with him some days. Having discovered the unguarded condition of the Danes, he returned to his adherents, and with a large force attacked his enemies by surprise, and defeated them with great slaughter. Alfred promised to give the Danes territory for a home, if they would embrace Christianity. Guthrun and his followers accepted the condition; and Alfred assigned them the eastern part of Mercia, giving it the name of Danelagh, which they occupied for several years.

6. After having restored tranquillity to his distracted kingdom, he employed himself in cultivating the arts of peace, and in raising his subjects from the depths of wretchedness, ignorance, and barbarism. Cities and towns which had been destroyed by the Danes were rebuilt, a regular

militia was organized, and ships of war were constructed to protect the coast. Men of learning, and of skill in the various arts, were invited from other countries, that he might avail himself of their wisdom and counsel.

7. After a few years, the reign of peace was again interrupted by war. Guthrun died; and, soon after, his followers were found aiding their countrymen in new expeditions Danish raids against England for plunder and pillage. In 893 renewed. the famous sea-king Hastings, with a fleet of two hundred and fifty ships, appeared upon the coast, and for more than three years continued to be the terror of all England. Some of the inhabitants joined the invaders; but, after many desperate engagements, Alfred was victorious, and the vanquished searovers were compelled to retire.

8. The few remaining years of Alfred's reign were spent in most judicious measures for the improvement of his Alfred's last kingdom and people; and he died in 901, after a days. reign of thirty years.

9. The testimony of history is unanimous in praise of this the most excellent of England's sovereigns. A successful warrior, —having fought in person more than fifty battles by A warrior land and by sea, and having taken the first steps to- and states- wards a standing army and a navy for England, — man. he was still greater in the arts of civilization and peace. Some writers ascribe to him the first division of England into counties; but it is more than probable that a similar division existed at a much earlier date. He collected the laws of the Saxons, and formed them into a new code, and established a tribunal for the administration of justice, which may, perhaps, have suggested to a later sovereign (Henry II.) the trial by jury.

10. Navigation and commerce, manufactures and useful inventions, found a liberal patron in Alfred; and he was himself the originator of a device for measuring time, clocks and watches being then unknown. Trade, man- For this purpose he used wax candles, with notches at ufactures, and inven- tions.

regular distances, which by their burning measured the intervals of time ; and, to protect them from currents of air, he enclosed them in lanterns of thin horn. He also encouraged the people to improve their dwellings and churches, and to adopt many conveniences of life to which they had been unaccustomed. As a friend of learning, his influence was highly useful. He was the patron, and perhaps the founder, of the University of Oxford. He also instituted schools ; and, for the instruction of his people, he translated a number of works into the Saxon language, and ordered that "all good and useful books" then written in Latin should be changed to the language of the people.

11. The character of Alfred shines forth with distinguished lustre in a dark age. He was one of the greatest and best sovereigns that ever sat on a throne,—equally excellent in his private and his public character. He was distinguished for his personal accomplishments both of body and mind, and is reputed the greatest warrior, legislator, and scholar of the age in which he lived.

12. Alfred was succeeded in 901 by his son **Edward**, sur-named **the Elder**, from his being the first English monarch of that name. He resembled his father in military genius ; and his reign was a continued but successful struggle against the Northumbrians and Danes, who were powerful in the north of England. By his conquests he added to his dominions several states which before had been merely tributary, and he was the first sovereign who assumed the title of King of all England.

13. **Athelstan**, an able and popular sovereign, son of Edward the Elder (925), was successful in his wars with the Danes, Northumbrians, Scots, Irish, and Welsh ; and he enlarged and strengthened his kingdom. He caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon language, and enacted a law which conferred the rank of thane, or gentleman, on every merchant who made three voyages to the Mediterranean.

14. **Edmund**, brother of Athelstan (941), made some conquests, and his reign promised to be a successful one ; but he was suddenly assassinated in his own banqueting-hall by the notorious robber Leolf, previously banished by him, and whom, on this occasion, he had ordered out of his presence. He was succeeded by his brother Edred.

Edmund as-
sassinated.

15. **Edred** (948) was not a man of great talents ; but he succeeded in reducing the rebellious Danes in Northumbria to a state of subjection, and garrisoned some of the important towns to secure the future peace of his kingdom. His principal counsellor was Dunstan, abbot of Glastonbury, a man of noble birth, great talents, varied accomplishments, and extraordinary energy, and who gained a wonderful ascendancy over the sovereign and the people.

Edred's
reign useful.

Dunstan.

16. **Edwy**, or **Edwin**, son of Edmund, succeeded Edred (955) at the early age of sixteen. His reign was an unhappy one. Dunstan was making strenuous efforts to reform the secular (married) clergy, in which measures he was opposed by the king. Edwy also married his cousin Elgiva, in opposition to the counsels of Dunstan, and Odo, archbishop of Canterbury ; and it is said, that, on the occasion of a festival following his coronation, he suddenly left the festivities to enjoy the society of his queen and her mother. This was offensive to the Saxon nobles ; and Dunstan and a companion followed the king to his apartment, and forced him back to the banqueting-hall. The king was indignant at this act, and thenceforth became the bitter enemy of Dunstan.

Edwy's con-
test with
Dunstan, &c.

17. With the consent of Edwy, and by the advice of the queen, the property belonging to the community of Glastonbury was seized. Dunstan was expelled from his monastery, and soon after obliged to leave the kingdom. The Mercians revolted against Edwy, and declared in favor of his younger brother Edgar ; and Dunstan, with

Dunstan
banished,
but returns.

whom they sympathized, was recalled. Odo declared Edwy's marriage unlawful; and Elgiva was arrested and murdered. sent into Ireland, from whence she soon after escaped, and attempted to join Edwy, when she was seized, and cruelly put to death. A series of afflictions followed Edwy, who died soon after (in 958), after a reign of less than four years, and was succeeded by his brother Edgar.

18. **Edgar's reign (959)** was one of peace. He encouraged trade, and kept a powerful fleet, by means of which he was able to hold the Danes in check, and to protect the commerce of his people. He imposed a tax upon the Welsh nobles, payable in wolves' heads, — a circumstance which probably gave rise to the story that he freed his kingdom from wolves. But wolves did not disappear from England until some time after the reign of this king.

19. Edgar promoted Dunstan to the archbishopric of Canterbury, and made him his chief counsellor; and having heard of the extraordinary beauty of Elfrida, daughter of the Earl of Devonshire, he sent Athelwold, his favorite, to ascertain the truth of it. Athelwold, overcome by the charms of Elfrida, on his return assured the king that the account of her beauty had been greatly exaggerated; and he obtained the king's permission to marry her himself. But the king, having afterwards discovered the treachery of his favorite put him to death, and married Elfrida. Edgar's private character and conduct were not good.

20. Edgar was succeeded by **Edward (975)**, his son by his first marriage, who was assassinated in the fourth year of his reign, and nineteenth of his age, at the instigation of his mother-in-law Elfrida; and from this circumstance he was surnamed **the Martyr**.

21. **Ethelred II.**, the son of Edgar and Elfrida, succeeded (978) to the throne at the age of eleven years. He was a weak monarch, surnamed **the Unready**. He married Emma of Normandy, sister of Duke Richard II.

The Danes committed many depredations upon the kingdom, and Ethelred's cowardly policy was to bribe the invaders to retire. To raise money for this purpose he imposed upon the land a tax called "danegeld," or Dane money; paying to his enemies at one time sixteen thousand ^{Danegeld.} pounds, and at another twenty-four thousand pounds. When these invasions became frequent, and the tax burdensome, such of the Danes as the recent invaders had left behind were massacred by order of the king, at the Festival of St. Brice (1002), without distinction of age or sex. Among the slain was a sister of Sweyn, king of Denmark, with her husband and children.

22. When the news of this barbarous transaction reached Denmark, it fired every bosom with a desire of vengeance; and a large army of Danes, under their king, Sweyn ^{Sweyn.} (who was the grandson of Beatrix, the daughter of Edward the Elder), invaded and ravaged the country. Ethelred fled to Normandy, and Sweyn was acknowledged (1013) sole king of England; but he died before his coronation, and Ethelred was again restored. The latter, dying not long afterwards, was succeeded (1016) by his son **Edmund**, surnamed **Ironsides** from his strength and valor; but his abilities and courage were insufficient to save his sinking country.

23. The Danes, who had now obtained control of the crown in England, were kindred of the Saxons, belonging to the same great Teutonic family, and having a ^{The Danes.} similar language and religion.

Among the few words of probable Danish origin found in the modern English are names of persons ending in *son*, as Johnson, Nelson; and names of places in *by* (a town or village) and in *wich* (a station), as Whitby, Derby, and Norwich, or North Station.

CHAPTER V.

DANISH KINGS.—SAXON KINGS RESTORED.

1017 to 1066, — 49 years.

Canute the Great.
Harold I.

Canute II.
Edward the Confessor.
Harold II.

ON the death of Sweyn, his son **Canute**, or **Knut**, was proclaimed (1017) king of England by the Danes. Having expelled a younger brother who had usurped the throne of Denmark, Canute asserted his claim to the crown of England, invaded the country with a numerous army, and compelled the king to divide his dominions with him. Edmund was soon after murdered by the treachery of Edric, his brother-in-law; and Canute became sole monarch. He was the most powerful sovereign of his time in Europe, and was styled the Great from his talents and successes. In the former part of his reign he was severe, but in the latter part mild and beneficent; and he died lamented.

2. Canute was succeeded (1036) by his son **Harold**, whose principal amusement was the chase, and who obtained the sur-
name of Harefoot from his swiftness in running.
Harold.
Canute II. On his death (1039) the throne was filled by his brother **Canute II.**, or **Hardicanute**, the last of the Danish kings. The reigns of these two monarchs were short, and signalized by few important events; and both died without issue.

3. The English now shook off the Danish yoke, and restored

(1041) the Saxon line in **Edward** the "Confessor," brother of Edmund Ironside, though the rightful heir of **Edward's** this line was Edward, surnamed the "Outlaw," the **history.** son of Ironside, who was now an exile in Hungary. Edward's mother (the queen of Ethelred II.) was Emma of Normandy, a province in the north-western part of France, which was overrun and occupied early in the tenth century by the Northmen, — tribes of Scandinavian origin. These people were afterwards called Normans. During the reign of the Danish kings in England, Edward had passed some time in exile in Normandy and Flanders. He was educated in a monastery in Normandy, and was noted for his piety and benevolence, but was not a man of great abilities nor of much ambition.

Emma had married for her second husband King Canute ; and upon the death of that monarch, Edward crossed the channel with a fleet to lay claim to the throne of England. But he was opposed by his mother, who was now regent of Wessex, and was obliged to return. A few years afterwards, during the reign of Harold I., Edward and his brother Alfred were invited to England, when Alfred was treacherously slain ; but Edward effected his escape, and fled to Flanders.

4. Upon the death of Hardicanute, the English people, tired of Danish rule, sought for a king of their own race **Edward** and blood. Edward, who had been kindly treated **made king.** by Hardicanute, was now brought forward as a claimant for the throne, as being the nearest of the royal line then in the country.

But Edward's fondness for the Normans made him unpopular with some of his people ; and a leader among this class was Godwin, Earl of Wessex, one of the most powerful **Earl God-** and influential noblemen of the land, and a thorough **win.** hater of the Normans. He was of sturdy Saxon blood, and with his six sons acted an important part in the history of his time. But Godwin became reconciled, and is said to have consented to Edward's accession to the throne, on condition that his own daughter Edith should become the wife and queen

of the new monarch. Edward is said to have treated his wife with indifference and coldness ; and he also deprived his mother of her large possessions, and confined her in a monastery, on account of her former opposition to his plans for securing the throne.

5. For a time Edward's reign was comparatively peaceful, and the country was prosperous. The bitter feeling which had long existed between the Saxons and the Danes, and which had been the source of almost incessant strife, gradually gave way to more friendly relations, and the two races became more assimilated as one people.

But Edward was a Norman in feelings, as well as by education ; and his partiality for that people led him to fill the principal offices of his court and of the church with Normans, and Norman-French was spoken at court, and was used in legal documents. This gave great offence to the people, and often led to serious difficulties. On one occasion Count Eustace of Boulogne, a brother-in-law of the king, paid him a friendly visit, and while on his return to France, he had a personal difficulty with some of the citizens of Dover, in which several persons were slain. Edward called upon Godwin in disgrace. to punish the people of Dover for their insults to his relative ; but the stanch old Saxon refused, upon finding that the count was the aggressor, and he insisted that the affair should take due course of law. This led to a complication of difficulties, which finally resulted in driving Godwin and his family into exile. Not long afterwards, he and his son Harold returned with a fleet and followers, and secured their restoration to their former possessions and power ; and Edward's Norman adherents, whom he had appointed to numerous offices, were compelled to leave the country.

6. Godwin did not long survive his return to power ; and his earldom and other possessions fell to his son Harold. Harold, who now became the leading nobleman of England. He was brave, a person of many noble qualities, and

a great favorite ; and as a leader in Edward's armies he did good service in the subjugation of Wales. Harold was very ambitious, and the object of his ambition was the throne of England ; and for a long time he secretly used all his power to accomplish his purpose.

7. But there was another aspirant for the throne in the person of William, Duke of Normandy. William was a second cousin of King Edward, and had visited his royal Duke of cousin in England during Godwin's banishment, Normandy. when he was treated with great kindness and consideration. During the visit, as William afterwards claimed, the king signified his intention to make him his successor upon the throne.

8. Harold, having occasion to visit Normandy, was shipwrecked upon the coast, and taken prisoner, and confined. But Duke William came to his relief, ransomed Harold and him, and took him to his court at Rouen, where the duke. he treated him with great kindness and hospitality. William finally disclosed to Harold his plans for securing the sovereignty of England, and extorted from him an oath to assist him in the undertaking ; but, after his return to England, Harold openly exerted himself with energy to secure his own accession to the throne. Edward was old and infirm ; and Harold represented that Edgar Atheling, the sole heir, was a youth of most violent temper and of weak mind, unfit to rule England, and that therefore the royal family should be set aside. Great exertions were made to increase his own popularity, and to set forth his abilities, bravery, and experience in the most favorable light. Ere long success crowned his efforts.

9. Edward died soon after completing and consecrating Westminster Abbey on the site where Sebert, King of Essex, had built a church to St. Peter more than four cen- Edward's turies before. He was buried in the abbey, and death and some time afterwards was canonized by the Pope, character. and received the surname of the Confessor. It was during this reign that occurred those events in Scottish history that form the basis of Shakspeare's tragedy of "Macbeth."

Edward is represented as a man of fine personal appearance, with hair and beard of snowy whiteness. He was not a brilliant man, but was pious, kind, and just. He was thought to be favored with the special privilege of curing the scrofula, or king's-evil. This power was long supposed to have descended to his successors ; and the superstitious practice of touching for that disorder was continued by the sovereigns of England from this period till the revolution of 1688.

10. Harold claimed that the dying king, in language indistinctly uttered, named him as his successor ; and he was elected by the Witan, crowned, and proclaimed king as **Harold II.**, on the very day of Edward's funeral. But his reign was short and full of trouble. His brother Tostig, Earl of Northumberland, had been banished by the inhabitants for his tyranny and oppression ; and, not succeeding in securing his own restoration, he became a bitter enemy of Harold, and sought revenge by collecting a fleet in Flanders, and invading England. After being repulsed from the southern coast, he was joined by Hardrada, a giant king of Norway, with a much larger fleet ; and they entered the mouth of the Humber, disembarked their hordes of freebooters, and commenced their depredations upon the country and people. York was surrendered to them ; but Harold soon hastened with an army to the scene of conflict, and was disposed to make peace with his brother ; but, when Tostig asked what favors would be granted to Hardrada, Harold replied, "Seven feet of English earth for a grave." This broke off negotiations ; and a great battle was fought at Stamford bridge, near York, in which Tostig, Hardrada, and many of their followers, were slain, and the surviving invaders were compelled to retire. So great was the carnage at this time, that the bones of the slain were said to have whitened the battle-field for half a century afterwards.

11. Meanwhile in the province of Normandy, active preparations were taking place for an expedition fraught with momentous consequences to the English government and people.

When William heard of Harold's election and coronation, he was highly indignant, and immediately despatched Harold op- an embassy to him, reminding him of his former posed. oath, and demanding the surrender of his kingdom. Harold replied, that his oath had been given through fear of violence, that he had been made king by the suffrages of the nation, and that he had neither inclination nor right to surrender his charge.

William determined at once to enforce his claims. He was a person of great popularity, and pre-eminent for his courage and noble bearing ; and when he publicly announced William's his intended expedition, great enthusiasm was mani- preparation. fested in neighboring states, and many princes and valiant leaders, with numerous followers, hastened to enroll themselves under his leadership. His own subjects were at first indifferent, and reluctant to sanction or assist an enterprise whose field of operations was out of their own country. But William finally succeeded by his personal address in enlisting their co-operation and assistance. The Pope also gave his gracious approval, and sent to the duke a consecrated banner.

12. In the early autumn of 1066, the Normans crossed the English Channel with nearly a thousand vessels and The Nor- an army of sixty thousand men, and landed in mans in Eng- Sussex, and pitched their camp on a range of hills land. at Senlac, near Hastings.

Harold was at a banquet in York, soon after his successful repulse of the Norwegian invasion, when he heard that the Normans were encamped on English soil. He immediately set out for London, with all the forces he could collect, without delay, and hastened to confront the invaders, and intrenched his army on the hills opposite the Norman camp. The night before the battle is said to have been spent by the English in revelry and riot, and by the Normans, in prayer and consecration.

13. Early on the morning of Oct. 14, the conflict began, and raged for nearly the entire day. Solid column met solid column,

and the slaughter was terrible. Several times during the day, **Battle of** victory seemed about to perch on the English banners ; but thrice William adroitly feigned retreat, and **Hastings.** drew his foes down into the plain, where he suddenly wheeled upon them, and inflicted most signal defeat. Harold received an arrow in his eye, and was soon after despatched by the lances of French knights, of whom Count Eustace was one. Two of Harold's brothers also perished in the midst of the conflict.

The battle of Hastings was decisive. Although the English at London soon chose as their king Edgar Atheling, the young grandson of Edmund Ironside, he was never **Result.** crowned ; and the Norman duke hastened to improve the advantage his recent victory had given him. The submission of Dover, Canterbury, and Winchester, soon followed ; and London, after some resistance, surrendered to William, who was chosen king, and whose descendants have to this day occupied the throne of England.

14. This event, commonly called the Conquest, is one of the most important landmarks in English history. It **Importance** introduced the Norman element into the kingdom **of the event.** and upon the throne, and had an important bearing upon the future of the country, and its relations to other lands.

15. More than eleven hundred years had now elapsed since the island of Britain appeared in history. The Celts, the Roman occupation, and the Saxon and Danish invasions **Growth of** and settlements, had all contributed to the growth **the nation.** of the English nation and to its civilization. These different elements had become so blended, that the people were more like one nation than they had ever before been.

16. The state of society at this time was not refined. Some progress was made under the Saxons, but much **Society.** was also lost by the devastations and barbarous practices of the Danes.

But there was a wide difference between the condition of the nobles and of the lower classes. The nobles held large tracts

of land under the king, for whom they were obliged to fight and to render assistance when called upon ; while the people occupied and tilled the soil, with similar obligations to the nobles, by whom they were often greatly oppressed.

17. Manual labor, except in the arts, was performed chiefly by slaves, some of whom enjoyed a degree of freedom, while others were bought and sold with the land upon which they were born, but could not be separated Slavery, &c. from it. Many of the freemen were compelled to work a certain number of days each year for the lord, or owner of the land, receiving in pay the rent of land for their own cultivation. There was a feeling of dependence by all orders of people upon those above them in rank, and also a kind of obligation, on the part of the higher classes, to provide in a measure for their dependents. This feature in the relation of the different classes seems to have been brought by the Anglo-Saxons from their early home on the Continent.

18. The dwellings of the people were built in clusters, or villages, around which were common fields for pasturage, in care of the village herdsmen and the pound-keeper. Dwellings. All could cut wood from the forests, and dig turf from the bogs, for fuel ; and deer and wild fowl could be hunted free, for there were no game-laws until the time of Canute.

The dwelling of the nobleman, or lord of the village, usually consisted of one large room, which served as a family apartment, a banqueting-hall, and sleeping-room ; bunks or berths being arranged around the walls for beds, before which curtains were sometimes suspended. But the females had separate sleeping-apartments, called bowers, built outside. The attendants slept upon benches or upon the floor. Chairs elaborately carved were kept for distinguished guests, only benches and stools being in more common use. The fire was built in the middle of the room, the smoke escaping through an opening in the roof ; and the floor, often of earth, was strewn with rushes or straw, to which flowers were added on special occa-

sions. The windows were furnished with lattice or cloth, instead of glass, which had not yet come into common use ; and the walls were sometimes hung with tapestry and curtains of silk richly embroidered. But the dwellings of the lower orders were rude huts or hovels, covered with turf, and containing no furniture but a few rude benches for seats, and beds of straw and rushes. Cups, spoons, and dishes were rudely formed of horn, bone, and wood. Candles of tallow were used for lighting these huts, while those of wax were used by the higher classes.

19. In the eighth century the dress of the males consisted of a linen under-garment, over which was a tunic of linen or woollen, open at the neck, and extending to the knees, with long sleeves reaching to the wrist. The borders and collar of those of the higher classes were ornamented, and the garment was confined around the waist by a belt. Over this was worn a short cloak, fastened at the shoulder or breast with a kind of brooch. Linen or woollen drawers and stockings were worn, and shoes of leather formed coverings for the feet. The lower garments and the tunic of the poorer classes were often made of leather and untanned hide. The upper lip was shaven, but otherwise the hair and beard were worn long. The garments of the women were similar to those of the men, except that a long dress with full sleeves took the place of the short tunic, and the outer garment was a kind of mantle instead of a cloak. The hair was curled with hot irons, and dressed with much care ; and the head-dress consisted of a veil, or strip of linen or silk cloth, wound round the neck and head. They also wore necklaces, ribbons, ear-rings, and brooches.

20. The Anglo-Saxons and Danes were great eaters, and those who were able had four meals a day. Food was abundant. For meat they raised cattle, sheep, swine, fowls, and goats, and hunted deer and hares ; and meats were salted for preservation. They had fish, such as salmon and herring, also oysters, lobsters, and eels ; and in

cooking they boiled, baked, and broiled their food. Bread, sometimes eaten hot, was made from wheat and barley; and beans, eggs, cheese, and honey, were in common use; and mention is made of grapes, apples, pears, nuts, and figs.

At meals, knives were used for carving, but not for eating; and fingers supplied the place of forks, water being passed round after eating, with which to wash the hands.

The tables were spread with cloths so large that Meals. they covered the knees of the guests, and could be used as napkins. The people were all fond of exhilarating drinks, such as ale, mead, and wine, which were served in silver cups, and in horns ornamented with rims and knobs of silver. On festive occasions, both eating and drinking were carried to excess, and were accompanied by songs, dancing, and the harp. Public ale-houses were much frequented, and were the scenes of boisterous conviviality and rioting; but priests were prohibited by law from eating or drinking at such houses.

21. The principal amusements were hunting, hawking, juggling, songs and instrumental music, chess, dice, and other similar games. Backgammon, which signifies "little Amuse- battle," originated with the Welsh. The musical ments. instruments in use were the harp, lyre, viol, horn, trumpet, drum, cymbal, and flute. The harp was probably introduced from Ireland, where music in early times was much cultivated, and where church music was especially noted for its excellence.

22. The domestic life of the early English was very far above that of savage nations. The sexes were not separated at meals, nor on festive occasions. In household affairs and Domestic in society, woman was well treated, and exerted a life. good degree of influence. Personal cleanliness was regarded as a prime virtue; the bath was in frequent use; and children were well cared for at home. In case of poverty, a father could consign his son, after childhood, to slavery for a period of seven years, provided the boy consented to the contract.

The marriage-ceremony was performed by the priest, and

was an occasion of joy and festivity. Before the age of fifteen, a girl could be given in marriage by her father at will ; but after that age she was allowed to select her own husband. Before marriage, the bridegroom gave a pledge to support his wife and her children in a style becoming her position in society.

The women of the higher classes were skilful in the use of the needle, and spent much of their time in embroidering with golden and colored thread. In Bayeux, France, there is still preserved an historical tapestry, a pictorial representation of the Conquest, wrought with worsteds of various colors on a roll of linen two hundred and fourteen feet long and twenty inches wide. This is believed to have been made by English women, though some have attributed it to Matilda, the wife of the Conqueror.

23. During the latter part of the Saxon period, agriculture received much attention. Farms were divided into pasture, meadow, and wood land ; but fences were not used, *Agriculture.* division-lines being formed by hedges, ditches, and brooks. The farmers used ploughs, rakes, sickles, scythes, forks, flails, wagons, and carts ; also mills for grinding grain. Bees were kept quite extensively, furnishing honey in great abundance, which was an important article of food, sugar being then little known. The raising of cattle was the leading industry ; and much attention was also given to sheep ; the warm, moist climate of the island being favorable for good pasturage. As the fields were not enclosed, many people were occupied in tending cattle, sheep, swine, and goats. Vegetable and flower gardens were cultivated to some extent. Forests were protected by law from destruction ; and the value of trees, especially the oak, walnut, and the beech, was determined according to the number of swine that could feed under them.

24. The Anglo-Saxons acquired considerable skill in manufacturing and in the various useful arts, and had *Trades.* quite a reputation as workers in iron and other metals, including the manufacture of jewelry. Such occupa-

tions as masons, carpenters, blacksmiths, wagon-makers, armorers, weavers, tailors, and tanners and shoemakers, and others, were represented in the principal communities. But some of these were itinerant in the pursuit of their calling; the blacksmith with his portable forge and tools, and the shoemaker and the tailor with the implements of their craft, being accustomed to go round to the dwellings of the people, and to perform their work when their services were needed. Glass-making was learned from the French, and its use was slowly introduced.

25. Ship-building and commerce were industries of considerable importance. The oak of the island was noted for its strength; and English ship-carpenters were skilful, **Commerce** and held in high esteem. Foreign vessels, especially **and traffic.** from the East, came to the country for traffic; and English ships visited the ports of Western Europe and of the Mediterranean, carrying cattle and other animals, wool, skins, the various agricultural products, lead, iron, and manufactured articles. The trade in slaves was quite active; young men and women bought for the purpose being sent from the port of Bristol to Ireland for sale. Traffic was carried on to a considerable extent in barter, or the exchange of one commodity for another. About the close of the tenth century, the barter price of a slave was twenty shillings; a horse, thirty shillings; an ox, six shillings; a cow, five shillings; a swine, one shilling and threepence; a sheep, one shilling; and a goat, twopence. Land, also, was cheap, selling sometimes for four shillings an acre. But the value of money was much greater then than at the present time.

26. The Witan, established by the early Saxons, continued to be the great Council or Parliament of the nation for making laws, and for the administration of justice in its higher forms. Its principal meetings were at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. **Government.**

In courts of justice, a person accused of crime was acquitted if he could bring a number of friends, owners of property, to

swear to his innocence : otherwise he submitted to the trial by “*ordéal*,” where he was compelled to walk over hot plough-shares, to hold hot iron in his hands, or to plunge his arm into boiling water. If no harm from the ordeal was found upon his person at the end of three days, he was considered innocent.

Trials. 27. Long before the Conquest, Christianity was the religion of the nation, and every town and settlement had its church and priest. In the tenth and eleventh centuries considerable attention was given to the architecture of churches, which were generally built of wood ; though the one at York, built by Edwin, was of stone, with glass windows introduced from France.

Religion. At times there was much corruption in the Church, and many of its officers were immoral and worldly ; but there is reason to believe, nevertheless, that its influence did much to improve the condition of the people, to furnish an asylum for the oppressed, and to mitigate the evils of slavery.

Schools. 28. Before the time of Alfred there were no schools except the monasteries, which were institutions of learning as well as of religion. The Venerable Bede did much for the cause of learning as a teacher of monks and of youth, and by the preparation in Latin of text-books in nearly all branches then taught. Canute and others, during the century preceding the Conquest, founded several higher seminaries of learning, with which many distinguished scholars were connected. The principal branches taught in these schools were Latin, Greek, theology, astronomy, grammar, and arithmetic. In these branches the monks were well versed ; also in painting, music, sculpture, and architecture. Dunstan was largely instrumental in introducing the Benedictine monks, who for a long time were the principal teachers of youth. These monks showed great skill with the pen in copying and illuminating books upon vellum, or parchment ; and it is to their labors that we are principally indebted for much of the ancient literature that has

been transmitted to modern times. But the common people were not educated; and some of the Saxon kings could not write their names, but made their mark instead. The brothers of King Alfred never learned to read. The Saxons were a practical people, with strong common-sense and quick judgment; but learning was not generally considered by them necessary, even among the high classes, except for those holding offices in the monasteries, and in connection with the Church. But physical education, and excellence in manly sports, were highly prized, and were attended to. To draw the strong bow, and wield the battle-axe, the broadsword, and the spear in war, and to engage in the chase, — where men sometimes found themselves in close personal combat with wild animals (which were then numerous), — rendered great physical strength not only serviceable, but necessary for success and safety.

The first library mentioned in England is said to have been collected at the minster, or cathedral, in York.

29. London was the most important town, with considerable trade. It is mentioned by the Roman writers of the first century, and it is supposed, that, a century or two later, Important the Romans surrounded it with walls. The East towns. Saxons made it the capital of their state (Essex); and, when Egbert united the states of the Heptarchy, he made it the metropolis of his new kingdom. It was soon afterwards sacked and burned by the Danes, but was rebuilt by King Alfred.

The land along the riverside was marshy, and the streets were narrow and winding. There was no drainage, and the streets abounded in pools and rivulets reeking with filth, that sometimes caused sickness and disease of London. an epidemic and pestilential character. The dwelling-houses were constructed of wood, with thatched roofs; the churches were crowned with wooden towers; and beautiful flower-gardens were cultivated around the monasteries and other religious houses. The city was surrounded by several villages, which are now included within the present metropolis; and beyond

these were the country residences of the wealthy Saxons, with their orchards and pleasant fields.

There were other towns of considerable importance, and some of them were of great antiquity. Winchester, a town of the early Britons, was for a long time the capital of Wessex and of England. Manchester was a seat of the Druids; and at Birmingham, in the kingdom of Mercia, now the great centre of the iron-industry, the Celts manufactured their arms before the Romans visited Britain.

Chester, York, Exeter, Sheffield, Worcester (*Wooster*), Cambridge, Bath with its warm springs, and Brighton (the pleasant seaside summer resort), were all well-known Roman stations, and at the time of the Conquest were places of more or less business and importance. The sea-roving Saxons early saw the importance of the harbor of Harwich (*Harridg*), and from their day it continued to be an important seaport.

30. London had not yet become the established capital of the kingdom, though some of the kings were crowned there, and at times had made it their place of residence
Capitals. and of the meeting of the Witan. The Saxon kings held court wherever it pleased them; their favorite place being Winchester, the old capital of Wessex. This city continued to be the chief capital of the kingdom until after the reign of Henry II., and was one of the favorite residences of the sovereigns until the time of George I. Edward the Confessor held his court at one time in the village of Windlesore, on the Thames, now Windsor, the principal residence of the British sovereigns.

A. — Topics for Outside Reading.

[References are to pages, unless otherwise indicated.]

1. Britain under Roman Rule.

GARDINER, "Student's History of England," I., pp. 10-25.
KENDALL, "Source-book," No. 1. COLBY, "Selections from the Sources." GREEN, "Making of England," pp. 1-25.

2. The Life of the English in the Fatherland: homes, government, habits in war and peace.

KENDALL, "Source-book of English History," No. 2.
COLBY, "Selections from the Sources," No. 4. GUEST, "Handbook of English History," Ch. V.

3. The English Conquest of Britain.

GREEN, "Short History," pp. 7-16. GUEST, Ch. VI.
KENDALL, "Source-book," No. 3. COLBY, "Sources," No. 5. COMAN and BATES, "English History as Told by English Poets," pp. 6-16.

4. The Conversion of the English to Christianity.

CREIGHTON, "Stories from English History," I. KENDALL, "Source-book," No. 4. COLBY, "Sources," No. 6. COMAN and BATES, 17.

5. Alfred the Great.

GARDINER, "Student's History," I., pp. 58-62. GUEST, Ch. IX. GREEN, pp. 47-53. COLBY, Nos. 8, 9. KENDALL, No. 7.

6. The Norman Invasion of England.

a. Early career of William of Normandy; FREEMAN, "Short History of the Norman Conquest," Ch. IV.

b. The Norwegian invasion of England; FREEMAN, Ch. VI. COLBY, No. 12.

c. Battle of Hastings; FREEMAN, Ch. VII., VIII. GARDINER, I., pp. 91-100.

Read, also, COMAN and BATES, 26-45. KENDALL, No. 13.

B. — Topics for Special Reports.

NOTE. — The references are not intended to be complete. The pupil should use all possible sources of information.

1. Monasteries: rules; services to England.

CREIGHTON, "Social History of England." GARDINER, I.
CREIGHTON, "Stories from English History," III.

2. Caedmon, the first English poet.

CREIGHTON, "Stories," II. Any history of English Literature.

3. Methods of trial and punishment in early England.

KENDALL, No. 6. GARDINER, I., 32.

4. Country life in England before 1066.

CREIGHTON, "Social History," 1-4. KENDALL, No. 9.
GARDINER, I., 70-71, 75-77.

C. — Map Work.

For general reference, GARDINER'S "Atlas."

1. Mark on an outline map the Thames, Mersey, Humber, Severn, Ouse and Trent Rivers. Show, by colors, the location of coal, iron and tin deposits, arable land, swamps.

2. Describe the course of the chief Roman roads, and state why they took the course which they did.

3. Britain about 600 A.D., showing location of Angles, Saxons, Jutes and Britons. Locate Thanet, London, Aylesbury.

4. England by the treaty of Wedmore (Chippenham). Locate Athelney, Ethandun, Wedmore. Why important?

To Illustrate
ENGLISH HISTORY,
Subsequent to the
Conquest.

Map of Great Britain and Ireland, showing the English Channel, North Sea, and various rivers and cities. Key locations include London, York, Manchester, Liverpool, and Edinburgh. The map is framed by a grid with latitude and longitude markings.

NORTHROP & CO BUFFALO

PART II.

THE FEUDAL PERIOD.

FROM THE NORMAN CONQUEST TO (HENRY VII.) THE
TUDOR FAMILY.

1066 to 1485, — 419 years.

CHAPTER I.

THE NORMAN FAMILY.

1066 to 1154, — 88 years.

William I., the Conqueror.
William II., Rufus.

Henry I.
Stephen.

WILLIAM I., known as William the Conqueror, was crowned at Christmas (1066) in Westminster Abbey. When the Saxons and the Normans were asked, William's each by their own bishop, if they would have Wil- coronation. liam for their king, both peoples signified their assent with loud applause. This noise was mistaken by the Norman soldiers, outside of the abbey, for a hostile demonstration against the new king; and they immediately set fire to the neighboring houses, when a great tumult occurred. But the ceremony of coronation and anointing went on, and William took oath to govern as justly as the best of the Saxon kings had governed before him.

2. Although William was in possession of the south-eastern part of England, a considerable portion of the kingdom was still in revolt against his authority; and nearly four State of the years were spent in wars to secure the consolidation kingdom. of his realm. But many of the nobility, including Edwin and

Marcar, the powerful earls of Mercia and Northumbria, and Edgar Atheling, gave in their submission to the king, either before, or soon after, his coronation.

3. He seemed anxious to govern acceptably to the people of London ; yet he built in their midst a fortress, now a part of the Tower of London, and filled it with soldiers, that he might hold in check any symptoms of discontent or disloyalty. This was his policy wherever he went ; and many of the castles and strongholds of England had their origin in his reign, including one he built on the site of the present palace of Windsor. He confiscated the lands of Harold and his friends, and gave them to his Norman followers and favorites, who were promoted to the principal offices of importance ; and he also caused the Norman language to be adopted in the service of the church, as well as in the courts of justice.

4. Accompanied by a retinue of distinguished English noblemen, William spent the summer following his coronation in Normandy, looking after his Continental possessions.

His absence. The management of affairs in England during his absence was left in care of his half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and William Fitz Osborn ; but these officers did not at all times govern wisely. The building of castles for Norman garrisons, and the exclusion of Saxons from office to make places

for Norman officials, went on, and occasioned much discontent. dissatisfaction among the English. Frequent opposition to Norman oppression was manifested ; and an open revolt of the people in some parts of the country seemed immanent, when, late in the autumn, William suddenly returned from Normandy, and took measures to quell the rising storm. He proceeded to London, and, by his presence and skilful management, secured the co-operation of the nobility and people. But there were mutterings of discontent at the north and the west.

5. After holding the winter session of the Witan, he marched against Exeter, a strongly fortified city in the south-west, which

he besieged, and compelled to surrender. The mother and sons of Harold were in the city ; but they escaped, and left the country. He made two expeditions to the north-east, quelling insurrections, and fortifying such positions as would enable him to check the future movements of the insurgents. Two castles were built and garrisoned at York.

**Exeter and
York.**

6. During the year 1069 the most formidable uprising of the people took place which William had been called upon to encounter. In the west the spirit of hostility was bold and aggressive ; and in the north-east the people were joined by the Danes, who came in a large fleet, either to regain the position they once held in England, but had lost, or to assist the English in their attempt to rid themselves of their Norman masters. The fleet entered the Humber, where it was joined by another from Scotland, under Edgar Atheling, and by a number of English earls and their numerous followers. The combined forces immediately moved upon York, where the Norman garrison felt secure within their castles ; although they immediately set fire to the neighboring houses, that the invaders might not use their material to fill up the castle ditches. The fire spread with amazing rapidity, and continued to rage for two or three days, consuming the greater part of the city, with its ancient cathedral. The Normans sallied forth from their strongholds to repel the invaders ; but they were completely defeated, the castles destroyed, and the garrison, numbering three thousand, put to the sword.

Revolts.

The Danes.

**Disaster at
York.**

When the news of this disaster reached William, while hunting in Dean Forest, on the Severn, he swore terrible vengeance upon the Northumbrians. He immediately proceeded with a large force to York, which he found deserted. The Danes had retired to their fleet in the Humber, and gave no further trouble ; and as in the following spring, when joined by another of their fleets, under the command of

**William's
movements.**

King Sweyn, they entered the Thames, and then withdrew without doing harm, it is believed that in both instances William tried successfully the effect of bribery upon these sea-roving adventurers.

7. William's Christmas season was spent in repairing his castles, and in plans for making an example of this rebellious district that should admit of no doubtful interpretation; and his plans were formed and carried out with a deliberation and energy worthy of a better cause. Sending forth his troops, he laid waste the whole country, from the Humber northward beyond the Tees, for a hundred miles. Every human habitation and other buildings, with furniture and farming utensils, were burned; domestic animals were killed; and of the inhabitants, those who offered resistance were put to death; while others fled to the woods and the marshes, many of whom afterwards returned to the smoking ruins of their homes, and perished of starvation. One hundred thousand lives are said to have been lost in this work of devastation. The desolation of the land was complete. Fifteen years afterwards it was spoken of as a "waste;" and even at the end of half a century, it is related that the country for more than sixty miles was "totally uncultivated and unproductive."

This act of William savors more of Vandalism than of legitimate warfare, and has ever been severely condemned; but, while he had no wolfish delight in shedding blood, or in causing misery to others, it was his policy to leave no foe unconquered, and no aggressive enemy unpunished. Those who were friendly and loyal to him shared his confidence and generosity; but those who opposed him, or plotted against him, found that his vengeance was quick and sure.

8. From York, the king led his army across the country to Chester, an old Roman town, where he quelled an insurrection, and ordered the erection of a castle.

This virtually completed the Conquest; and William was now the acknowledged sovereign of his realm, although occasional

revolts of a local character required his attention. Scottish invaders were several times driven back into their own country ; an expedition was made against Wales ; and Here-
 ward, a rebel Saxon, intrenched himself with his
 followers upon the island of Ely, in the fen country of Cam-
 bridgeshire. William laid siege to the island, using flat-bot-
 tomed boats, and constructing a causeway through
 the marshes. The nature of the country made the
 siege a very difficult one, but the monks of Ely came to
 William's assistance. They were fond of good living ; but the
 siege cut off their supplies, and they showed him a way of
 approach to the island, by which he speedily compelled the
 insurgents to surrender.

Minor re-
volts.

Ely.

9. Several years afterwards, while upon the Continent, the king had a serious difficulty with his oldest son Robert, who rebelled against him because he could not have the
 duchy of Normandy bestowed upon himself. Father
 and son met in battle, clad in armor, and not knowing each
 other, until William, having been wounded, called for help ;
 when Robert, recognizing his father's voice, immediately asked
 his forgiveness, — a favor which the stern old Norman granted
 very grudgingly.

A family
trouble.

10. The king's favorite recreation was hunting ; and, although there were several royal forests for that purpose, he wished to have another near his palace at Winchester. For
 this purpose he laid waste the country for thirty
 miles in extent, destroying more than thirty parish churches
 and all the dwellings of the people, who were driven out, and
 obliged to seek homes elsewhere. This was called New Forest.
 A hunting forest includes not only woodland, but open land
 uncultivated and unoccupied. This act could not be called a
 war measure, like the devastation of Northumbria, but seems to
 have been done to gratify William's excessive fondness for mere
 sport. His forest laws were very severe, reserving to himself the
 almost exclusive privilege of killing game, and making it as

New Forest,
and laws.

great a crime to kill an animal without permission as to kill a man. He "loved the tall deer as though he were their father;" and whoever killed a deer or a boar had his eyes put out.

II. The most notable event in the reign of the Conqueror was his survey of the kingdom in 1085, the results of which



A NORMAN KNIGHT.

Doomsday Book. were recorded in a book called Doomsday Book. This book, in two volumes, is still preserved; and considering the time in which it was made, and the thoroughness of the survey, it is probably one of the most remarkable historical documents in existence.

The record gives the different classes of people, as barons, thanes, inferior land-owners, tenants, slaves, and "free women."

The list of offices and

occupations is quite full. In the upper classes there were chamberlains, stewards, butlers, constables, and treasurers, providers of the king's carriages, standard-bearers, hawk-keepers and bow-keepers, foresters, hunters, law men, and mediciners. Of the common workmen there were goldsmiths, carpenters, smiths and armorers, farriers and potters, ditchers, fishermen, millers, salters, bakers, tailors, and barbers, also mariners, watchmen, moneyers, and minstrels. On the farm there were ploughmen, bee-keepers, shepherds, neatherds, goatherds, and

swineherds. The ownership, extent, and value of land, is given, as grain land, meadow, pasture, and wood land; also the marshes, whose rent was paid in eels. There is a list of vineyards, gardens, salt-works, iron mines and works, and fisheries. The number of manors owned by the king and his favorites is given, and is very large; and the number of dwellings, with their rents, is recorded for many of the principal cities and burghs, though not for London and a few other places. The enumeration included churches and castles, and the number of houses destroyed and the land wasted for the building of the castles. Altogether, Domesday Book gives us a very good index to the state of society, the occupations of the people, and the products of the land, of England, for the latter part of the eleventh century.



A SAXON PEASANT.

12. The political

and social system of England was greatly modified by the feudal system introduced by William. When he gained possession of the country, he claimed that the entire land belonged to him by the right of conquest. **Feudal system.**

At first the lands of Harold's family and of some of the leaders of the revolts against him, were confiscated; but the other occupants retained their possessions by paying a heavy rent, or ransom. After the survey, the country was divided into a large

number of portions (some say sixty thousand), called "knight's fees." Many of these fees the king kept for his own use ; but the greater part of them were assigned to the earls, barons, and other officers, all of whom were called "tenants-in-chief," and who were obliged to swear allegiance to the king, and to defend him in all wars. These tenants were obliged to furnish, at the king's command, for every fee, one mounted soldier and attendants, to serve free for forty days in each year. The holders of these fees sublet portions to under tenants, who were also compelled to furnish service, either military or otherwise ; and all freemen and slaves were bound to, or were the property of, some master. It was essentially a military system, and for centuries was a heavy weight upon the progress of the country. It gave the king a ready and a large army when needed ; and the many taxes and exactions which it imposed, for the assumption and transfer of tenures and rights, also gave him a full treasury, especially when added to the frequent confiscations of property.

The relation of the different classes under the Saxons had a seeming resemblance to some features of the feudal system : but the tenure of land was materially different with the Saxons ; there was less harshness and severity in the system of the Saxons, and more general and individual freedom.

13. William was an avowed friend of the Church ; but his ecclesiastical policy, like his management of civil and military affairs, made it necessary for him to displace English officials, to find places for the hordes of Normans who were constantly importuning for offices and their emoluments. Bishops and priests and their subordinates were alike compelled to vacate their offices and their livings. Even Stigand, the Archbishop of Canterbury, one of the officiating prelates at William's coronation, was not spared. The monasteries were searched ; and the money, deposited there for safety by those who feared confiscation, was seized and converted into the royal treasury. The king gave much time and personal attention to ecclesiastical affairs, and was instrumental in the found-

ing or rebuilding of many cathedrals, abbeys, and churches, and in the introduction of an improved style of architecture. As to the standard of the Church, intellectual and moral, it was probably raised somewhat ; but the relations between the Norman clergy and the English people were neither cordial nor profitable in a religious sense. Yet many of these Norman prelates were men of great learning and ability, and of fine tastes ; and they made their influence felt in all the civilization of the age.

William's half-brother, Bishop Odo, who was also Earl of Kent, was active and influential in church affairs, but became arrogant and ambitious, and even aspired to the Papacy. This so exasperated the king, that he immediately seized him and cast him into prison, and, when remonstrated with by Odo, remarked that he did not imprison the Bishop of Bayeux, but the Earl of Kent. Odo.

When Harold fell at Hastings, William made a vow to erect a sacred monument on the very spot where Harold's standard was placed ; and that vow was fulfilled in subsequent years by the erection of Battle Abbey, — an extensive structure, as its ruins fully testify. Battle Abbey.

14. The latter part of William's reign was spent in Normandy, where he had a war with the kings of France, during which much loss of life and destruction of property took place. Having burned the town of Mantes, William was riding through its smoking ruins, when his horse stumbled and fell, from which his royal rider received a serious injury, and was carried back to Rouen. It is related, that, when he became sensible that his end was near, he expressed much sorrow and contrition for the blood he had shed and the misery he had caused in his numerous wars. To his son Robert, then in Paris, he left the duchy of Normandy ; the sovereignty of England was bestowed upon William, who immediately set out to take possession ; and to Henry he gave five thousand pounds of silver, realized from the possessions of Queen Matilda, who had died a few years before. As soon as William's last days.
Bequests.

the king ceased to breathe, his attendants all fled, taking as plunder whatever articles were within their reach ; and the body of the dead conqueror was left alone. A friend conveyed it to Caen ; and, as the procession neared the church which William himself had built, a great conflagration broke out in the town, and again the corpse was deserted, and left alone in the street. Having been taken into the church, it was about to be lowered into the grave, when a person cried out that the land upon which the church was built had been seized from his father without pay ; and the ceremony was not completed until money was raised to satisfy this demand.

15. William possessed great abilities, both as a statesman and a warrior. He ruled England with a strong hand, and left the impress of his genius upon all her institutions. He was not greatly beloved by his subjects, for he intruded upon them a foreign people and a foreign civilization ; and his unprincipled greed for wealth, and the inflexible military element of his character, were not calculated to make him popular. Yet his court was one of brilliance and splendor. His personal appearance was fine, being tall and well proportioned ; and he is said to have been so strong that scarcely any other person in that age could bend his bow, or handle his arms.

16. William II. (1087), surnamed **Rufus** from his red hair, was, like his father, ambitious and tyrannical, but inferior to him in talent, and without the generosity and humanity which often governed the acts of the Conqueror. After a reign of thirteen years, which was disturbed by insurrections, and by quarrels with the ecclesiastics, particularly with Anselm the primate, he was accidentally shot by Sir Walter Tyrrel with an arrow aimed at a stag in the New Forest.

17. Henry I. (1100), surnamed **Beauclerc**, or the scholar, on account of his learning, was the younger brother of William Rufus. He took advantage of the absence of his eldest brother, Robert (1100), the rightful heir, who was on a crusade to the Holy Land, and secured the crown for

himself. He invaded his brother's Norman dominions; and Robert, on his return, was defeated, taken prisoner, and confined in Wales till his death.

18. Henry married Matilda of Scotland, great-grand-daughter of Edmund Ironside; and in this way the Saxon and Norman families were united. The latter part of his life was rendered disconsolate by the loss of his only son, who was drowned on his passage from Normandy; and from that fatal moment he was never seen to smile. Henry was an able, courageous, and accomplished sovereign, but ambitious, licentious, and ungrateful.

Union of
Saxon and
Norman
families.

19. On the death of Henry (1135) the crown fell by right to his daughter Matilda, or Maud, married first to Henry V., Emperor of Germany, and afterwards to Geoffrey Plantagenet, Earl of Anjou. By the latter she had several children, of whom the eldest bore the name of Henry. But **Stephen**, a nephew of the late king, the most popular nobleman in the kingdom, and distinguished for his ambition, valor, generosity, and courtesy, seized upon the crown. Matilda immediately landed in England, and, raising a small army, defeated Stephen, and took possession of the crown: but her haughty and despotic behavior caused a revolt; and Stephen in his turn defeated her, compelled her to quit the kingdom, and again obtained possession of the throne.

Accession of
Stephen.

20. Henry, the son of Matilda, afterwards invaded England; and, during the heat of the contest, Eustace, the king's eldest son, was removed by a sudden death. Soon after this event the jarring interests of the two parties were reconciled, Stephen being allowed to retain the crown during his life, and Henry being acknowledged as his successor; and this transaction was shortly afterwards followed by Stephen's death. During this reign England was harassed and desolated by a succession of civil contentions and wars, which were carried on with unrelenting barbarity, by the pillage and destruction of the inhabitants and the conflagration of the towns.

Secures the
throne.

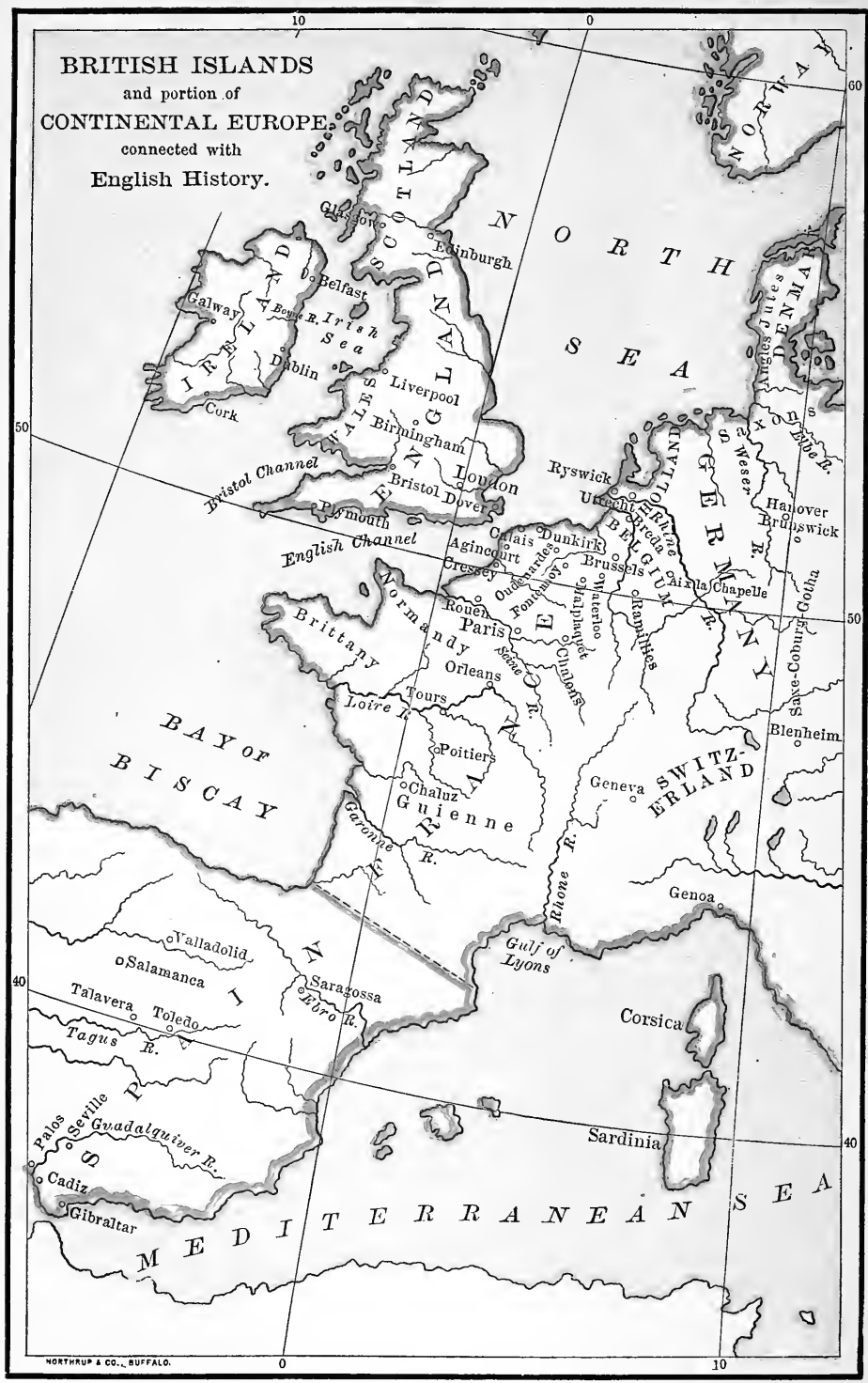
21. The political consequences of the wars of this reign, though disastrous in the extreme, could hardly be more so than were the injuries inflicted upon the social condition of the people. So sharply were the lines drawn between the adherents of Matilda and of Stephen, that neighborhoods and families were divided, and arrayed against each other in the bitterest strife. Nearly every baron, intrenched in his castle, became the head of a band who engaged in plunder and robbery almost without discrimination. Extensive tracts of country were uncultivated, and many considerable towns and districts were deserted by the inhabitants. The dead remained unburied; and the churches and graveyards became places of refuge to the poorer people, with their slender means. But even there robbery and conflagrations drove them forth, and everywhere misery seemed their only lot.

22. Stephen was a man of fine presence, gentlemanly and courteous in his bearing, and very cheerful in his disposition. Although thoroughly trained to war, and an able commander, he was neither wanton nor cruel. But when he violated his oath in regard to the succession, usurped the throne, and found the country plunged in civil war, he became the cause of much suffering and misery among the people.

23. The second husband of Matilda, Geoffrey, Earl of Anjou, gave the name to the family of fourteen kings, his descendants, who followed the reign of Stephen. It was the custom of the earl to wear in his cap a sprig of the broom-plant, the *Planta genista*, or *Planta à genet*, from which was derived the royal family name Plantagenet. Surnames (sire names) began to be commonly used in England at this period.



BRITISH ISLANDS
 and portion of
CONTINENTAL EUROPE
 connected with
 English History.



THE PLANTAGENET FAMILY, INCLUDING THE BRANCHES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

CHAP. II.-IV.

1154 to 1485, — 331 years.

CHAPTER II.

THE PLANTAGENETS.

1154 to 1399, — 245 years.

Henry II.
Richard I.

John.
Henry III.

Edward I.
Edward II.

Edward III.
Richard II.

HENRY II., the first of the Plantagenets, — being descended by his grandmother from the Saxon kings, and by his mother from the Norman family, — succeeded to the throne (1154), to the great satisfaction of the nation. He is sometimes called Shortmantle, because he brought the use of short cloaks out of Anjou to England. In addition to England, he possessed by inheritance, and by his marriage with Eleanor, heiress of the duchy of Guienne, nearly one-half of France, and during his reign he occupied Ireland; so that he had more extensive dominions than any English monarch who had preceded him, and was the most powerful sovereign of his age. His marriage with Eleanor, whom Sir James Mackintosh calls “the firebrand of his family,” proved to be the cause of much unhappiness and trouble to himself and to the kingdom.

2. The different countries of Europe had for a century been agitated with the contest between Church and State, or the ecclesiastical and civil authority. This contest reached its height in England during Henry's reign, of which it forms a prominent feature. Thomas à Becket, the hero and martyr of the ecclesiastical party, a man of extraordinary talents and ambition, entered upon a prolonged and significant struggle with the king's party. During part of it he was compelled to seek personal safety in France. Becket had for some time held the office of chancellor, and lived in the manner of a prince; but, on assuming the office of Archbishop of Canterbury, he dismissed his splendid train, cast off his magnificent apparel, abandoned sports and revels, and wore the habit of a monk.

3. During the preceding reign the power of the clergy had increased to a most exorbitant height; and Henry resolved to restrain their authority, and reform their abuses; and for this purpose he summoned in 1164 a general council of the nobility and clergy at Clarendon, and submitted to them sixteen propositions, which were agreed to, and are known under the title of the "Constitutions of Clarendon." With other things, it was enacted that clergymen accused of any crime should be tried by temporal judges. Becket, however, made the most resolute and formidable resistance to the changes proposed by Henry; and, after a long series of contests with the haughty primate, the king was on a certain occasion so exasperated by his conduct, that he rashly exclaimed, "What! among all those whom I have obliged is there none who will avenge me of that insolent priest?" The words were scarcely spoken, when four knights of distinguished rank, interpreting the king's complaints as commands, set out with a resolution to avenge the wrongs of their sovereign. They pursued the prelate into the cathedral, and assassinated him before the altar.

The account of this transaction filled Henry with consternation, and caused great excitement in England. Becket died a

martyr in the assertion of ecclesiastical authority, and the manner of his death effected the triumph of his cause. He was canonized by the Pope, by the title of St. Thomas of Canterbury; and numerous miracles were said to be wrought at his tomb, which became a celebrated resort of pilgrims. Henry publicly expressed his sorrow for having used the rash words which had occasioned the death of the primate, and expiated his offence by a humiliating penance at his tomb. Approaching within three miles of Canterbury, he dismounted, walked barefoot over the flinty road, which in some places he marked with blood, to the consecrated spot; spent there, in fasting and prayer, a day and night; and even presented his bare shoulders to be scourged by the monks with a knotted cord. The assassins did penance by a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, where they died; and this inscription was put on their tomb: "Here lie the wretches who murdered St. Thomas of Canterbury."

4. The latter part of Henry's life and reign presents an involved and deplorable scene of family discord and contention, — sons against their father, wife against husband, and brother against brother. His three eldest sons, Henry's family troubles. Henry, Geoffrey, and Richard, instigated by their mother, and assisted by Louis VII., King of France, engaged in a series of rebellions, with a design to wrest the crown from their father. Queen Eleanor left her husband, and openly associated herself with the rebellion of her sons; but she was, while making her way to the court of France, taken (dressed in male attire), brought back to Henry, and kept in confinement during the rest of his life. The queen had been irritated against her husband by his neglect and infidelities, and particularly by his attachment to Rosamond Clifford, who, under the title of the "Fair Rosamond," is described as a woman of extraordinary beauty, and who made a conspicuous figure in the romances and ballads of the times.

Henry had manifested for his children, in their more early years, an affection bordering on excess; and when he at last found that his youngest, unworthy, but favorite son, John, like

all the rest, had joined the confederacy against him, he felt that his cup of affliction was full, gave himself up to transports of ungovernable grief, cursed the day of his birth, uttered imprecations against his sons (which he could never be prevailed upon to retract), and, worn out with cares, disappointments, and sorrows, died of a broken heart.

5. The character of Henry may be regarded as a mixture of the qualities, good and bad, naturally arising out of strong intellect, a strong will, and strong passions. He was distinguished both as a warrior and a statesman, and he is ranked among the ablest and most useful sovereigns that have occupied the throne of England. The government was still despotic ; but the power of the barons was restrained during this reign, and the laws better administered than they had been since the conquest. Trial by jury, sometimes erroneously ascribed to the time of Alfred, probably had its origin in this reign ; and Henry was the first who appointed travelling judges to hold court in different parts of the kingdom, thereby saving much time and expense to the accused and witnesses. He abolished the absurd practice of trial by ordeal, in use since the time of Edward the Confessor ; and taxes were first levied on personal estate in England during this reign.

6. Henry was a patron of the arts, particularly of Gothic architecture ; and his reign is remarkable for being the period when many of the sumptuous English edifices were erected, and also for the introduction of various improvements with regard to the conveniences and comforts of life. The arts of luxury, however, were yet in a rude state. Glass windows were regarded as a mark of extraordinary magnificence ; and the houses of the citizens of London were constructed of wood, covered with thatch, and the floors were covered with straw.

The description of the magnificence displayed by Becket while he was chancellor of the kingdom will afford some idea of the rude state of the arts. Nobody, it is said by contem-

porary writers, equalled him in refinement and splendor. "Every day, in winter, his apartments were strewed with clean straw or hay, and in summer with rushes or leaves, that those who came to pay their court to him might not soil their fine clothes by sitting on a dirty floor."

7. **Richard I.**, surnamed Cœur de Lion (*kur duh le-on*), or lion-hearted, who succeeded his father Henry II. (1189), commenced his reign by a cruel persecution of the Jews. The frenzy for the crusades was at this period at its height in Europe. These crusades were military expeditions undertaken by the Christian nations of Europe for the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre and Palestine from the Mussulmans. To a prince of the adventurous spirit and military talents of Richard these enterprises presented irresistible attractions; and, after making preparation, he, in connection with Philip Augustus of France, embarked on an expedition to the Holy Land. They took Acre in concert; and Richard, especially, acquired great renown by his exploits, and defeated the heroic Sâladin, the famous Saracen chief, in the battle of Ascalon, in which about forty thousand of the Saracens were slain. On his voyage homeward, being shipwrecked, he disguised himself, with an intention of travelling through Germany; but he was discovered, and imprisoned by the emperor. He was ransomed by his subjects for the sum of three hundred thousand pounds, and, after an absence of nine years, returned to his dominions; but he died not long after of a wound which he received at the siege of the castle of Chalus, in France, belonging to one of his rebellious vassals.

Richard I.
and the
crusades.

8. Richard, who has been styled the Achilles of modern history, was pre-eminent for his valor, which was almost his only merit. Even a century after his death his name was employed by the Saracen cavalier to chide his horse, and by the Saracen mother to terrify her children. His ambition, tyranny, and cruelty were scarcely inferior to his valor. His laurels were steeped in blood, and his victories were purchased with the impoverishment of his people.

His charac-
ter.

9. Richard was succeeded by his brother **John** (1199), who is supposed to have murdered his nephew Arthur, who was the son of Geoffrey, an elder brother, and the rightful heir. Philip **Accession of** Augustus of France supported the claim of Arthur **John.** to the throne ; and, on account of his being murdered, he stripped the English monarch of his possessions in that country. In consequence of this loss of his territories, John received the surname of Lackland.

10. John excited against himself the displeasure of Pope Innocent III., who proceeded to lay the kingdom under an **Quarrel with** interdict, and afterwards excommunicated the king, **the Pope.** and absolved his subjects from their allegiance. The wretched monarch was intimidated into submission, and on his knees solemnly surrendered his kingdom to the holy see, consenting to hold it as the Pope's vassal. In this manner he made peace with the Church ; but he brought upon himself the universal contempt and hatred of his people.

11. The barons, under the direction of Langton, the primate, formed a confederacy, and demanded of the king a ratification **Magna** of a charter of privileges. John, bursting into a **Charter.** furious passion, refused their demand. They immediately proceeded to open war ; and the king, finding himself deserted, was compelled to yield. He met his barons at Runnymede, and, after a debate of a few days, signed and sealed (1215) the famous deed of Magna Charta, or the Great Charter, which secured important liberties and privileges to every order of men in the kingdom, and which is regarded as the great bulwark of English liberty. John granted at the same time the Charter of the Forest, which abolished the exclusive right of the king to kill game all over the kingdom.

12. The character of John is represented as more odious than that of any other English monarch ; debased by every vice, **John's** with scarcely a single redeeming virtue. His reign, **character.** though most unhappy and disastrous, is, notwithstanding, memorable as the era of the dawn of English freedom.

13. Henry III. succeeded (1216) to the throne at the age of only nine years, under the guardianship of the Earl of Pembroke. He was a weak monarch, timid in danger, presumptuous in prosperity, and governed by unworthy favorites. His lot was cast in a turbulent period of English history; and his long reign of fifty-six years consisted of a series of internal conflicts, though it was little disturbed by foreign war. The incapacity of the king was more productive of inconvenience to himself than of misery to his subjects. Under his weak but pacific sway the cause of popular freedom was advanced, and the nation grew more rapidly in wealth and prosperity than it had done under his military and more renowned predecessors.

**Henry III.:
character
and reign.**

14. Towards the latter part of the reign of Henry, the barons, with Simon de Montfort (Earl of Leicester) at their head, entered into a confederacy to seize the reins of government; and they compelled Henry to delegate the regal power to twenty-four of their number. These divided among themselves all the offices of government, and new-modelled the Parliament by summoning a certain number of knights chosen from each county. This measure proved fatal to the power of the barons; for the knights, indignant at Leicester's usurpation, concerted a plan for restoring the king. A civil war ensued. Leicester, at the head of a formidable force, defeated the royal army at Lewes, and made both the king and his son Edward prisoners. He compelled the feeble king to ratify his authority by a solemn treaty, assumed the character of regent, and called a parliament, summoning two knights from each shire, and deputies from the principal boroughs (1265). This is regarded as the era of the commencement of the House of Commons, being the first time that representatives to Parliament were sent from the boroughs.

**Popular
freedom
advanced.**

Prince Edward, having at length regained his liberty, took the field against Leicester, and defeated him with great slaughter in the famous battle of Evesham. In this battle

Leicester himself was killed ; and Henry, by the assistance of his son, was again placed on the throne.

15. Edward I., surnamed Longshanks from the length of his legs, on succeeding to the throne (1272), caused two hundred and eighty Jews in London to be hanged at once on a charge of having corrupted the coin ; and fifteen thousand were robbed of their effects, and banished from the kingdom. He soon after undertook to subdue Wales ; and having defeated and slain the sovereign, Prince Llewellyn, he annexed the country to the crown of England. He created his oldest son Prince of Wales,—a title which has ever since been borne by the oldest sons of the English monarchs.

16. The conquest of Wales inflamed the ambition of Edward, and inspired him with the design of extending his dominion to the extremity of the island. On the death of Alexander III., who left no son, Bruce and Baliol were competitors for the throne of Scotland ; and Edward was chosen umpire to decide the contest between the two rivals. He adjudged the crown to Baliol, who engaged to hold it as a vassal of the King of England. Baliol, however, soon afterwards renounced his allegiance : hence arose a war between England and Scotland, which lasted, with little intermission, upwards of seventy years, and drenched both kingdoms with blood. Edward invaded Scotland with a large army, defeated the Scots with great slaughter in the battle of Dunbar, and subdued the kingdom ; and Baliol was carried captive to London.

17. While Edward was prosecuting a war in France, the Scots were roused to exertion for the recovery of their independence by their renowned hero, Sir William Wallace ; but, after gaining a series of victories, they were at length defeated by the King of England, with immense loss, in the battle of Falkirk. Wallace became a prisoner of Edward, who put him to death with barbarous cruelty. The Scots found a second

Edward I.
and the
Jews
Wales.

War with
Scotland.

William
Wallace and
Robert
Bruce.

champion and deliverer in Robert Bruce, grandson of the competitor of Baliol, who, having expelled the English from the country, was raised to the throne of his ancestors. Edward prepared to make a new invasion with an immense army, but died after having advanced as far as Carlisle.

18. Edward, who was one of the greatest of the English sovereigns, was eminent as a warrior; and, on account of his wisdom as a legislator, he has been styled the Eng- Edward's lish Justinian. But he was in disposition a tyrant, character. and, as often as he dared, trampled on the liberties, or invaded the property, of his subjects. He was, however, admired by his contemporaries; and his barons respected the arbitrary sway of a monarch as violent and haughty as themselves. His reign was highly advantageous to the kingdom, particularly for the improvements made in the national code and the administration of justice. He repeatedly ratified Magna Charta, and an important clause was added to secure the people from the imposition of any tax without the consent of Parliament. Ever since that time there has been a regular succession of English parliaments.

19. Edward II., surnamed of *Caernarvon* (*K'ernarvon*) from the place of his birth, soon after succeeding to the throne (1307), in compliance with his father's dying in- Bannock- junction, invaded Scotland with an army of one burn. hundred thousand men, which was met at Bannockburn by thirty thousand Scots under their king, Robert Bruce (1314). A great battle ensued, in which the English sustained a more disastrous defeat than they had experienced since the battle of Hastings.

20. Edward II., who possessed little of the character of his father, was of a mild disposition, weak, indolent, fond of pleasure, and governed by unworthy favorites, the most Edward II.'s famous of whom were Gaveston and the two Spencers. His inglorious reign was characterized by character and reign. the corruption of the court, and by contests and war between

the king and the barons ; and his life was rendered unhappy by a series of mortifications and misfortunes. Isabella, his infamous queen, fixed her affections, which had long been estranged from her husband, upon Mortimer, a powerful young baron ; and she, together with her paramour, formed a conspiracy against the king, and compelled him to resign the crown to his son. Edward was then thrown into a prison, and afterwards murdered, by order of Mortimer, in a barbarous manner. Before his death, and while he was in prison, Parliament declared the throne vacant, thereby establishing its right to depose a sovereign.

21. Edward III. succeeded to the throne (1327) at the age of fourteen years. A council of regency, consisting of twelve persons, was appointed during the minority of the king ; yet Mortimer and Isabella possessed the chief control. A treaty was made with the Scots, virtually acknowledging the independence of their king and parliament. But Edward, on coming of age, could not endure the authority of a man who had caused the murder of his father, or of a mother stained with the foulest crimes. Mortimer was condemned by Parliament, and hanged upon a gibbet ; and Isabella was imprisoned for life at Castle Rising, and continued for twenty-eight years a miserable monument of blasted ambition.

22. The king, soon after he was established on the throne, made war with the Scots, and defeated them with great slaughter in the battle of Halidon Hill (1333). On the death of Charles IV., he laid claim, in right of his mother, to the crown of France, which he attempted to gain by force of arms, in opposition to Philip of Valois, who was acknowledged by the French nation as the rightful heir. This claim involved the two countries in a long and sanguinary war. After having made his preparations, Edward sailed from England with a powerful armament. His fleet, consisting of two hundred and fifty sail, encountered that of France, amount-

Edward III.
and Mor-
timer.

War with
the Scots and
with France.

ing to four hundred ships, off the coast of Flanders, and gained one of the greatest naval victories recorded in history. The loss of the English is stated at four thousand men and two ships, that of the French at thirty thousand men and two hundred and thirty ships.

Edward then invaded France at the head of thirty thousand troops, and in the famous battle of Cressy (1346) gained a splendid victory over Philip, the French king, who had an army of upwards of one hundred thousand men, and whose loss exceeded thirty thousand. Cressy;
the Black
Prince. This battle is noted, not only for the greatness of the victory, but also for being the first in English history in which cannon were made use of, and likewise for being the scene in which Edward, the king's eldest son (called the Black Prince from the color or covering of his armor), then only sixteen years of age, commenced his brilliant military career. Edward afterwards besieged and took Calais, which remained in the possession of the English till the time of Queen Mary.

23. While the English monarch was in France, the Scots, under their king, David, invaded England, and were defeated at Neville's Cross, near Durham, by Philippa, Philippa. Edward's heroic queen; and their king was led prisoner to London. Of the four generals under the queen, three were prelates.

24. John, who succeeded his father on the throne of France, took the field with an army of sixty thousand men against the Black Prince, who, with only sixteen thousand troops, gained a signal victory at Poitiers (*Pwattiers*), 1356. Poitiers. King John was taken prisoner, and led in triumph by the victorious prince to London, where he was kept a fellow-captive with David of Scotland.

25. Edward, in the latter part of his reign, sank into indolence and indulgence, and experienced a reverse of fortune; and, before his death, all his conquests, with the exception of Calais, were wrested from him. Possessions
lost. His son, the Black Prince, falling into a lingering consumption, was

obliged to resign the command of the army ; and Charles V. of France, an able sovereign, recovered most of the English possessions in that country. The death of the Black Prince, illustrious for his amiable virtues, as well as for his noble and heroic qualities, plunged the nation in grief, and broke the spirits of his father, who survived him only about a year, having occupied the throne fifty years.

26. Edward was the most powerful prince of his time in Europe, and in personal accomplishments is said to have been superior to any of his predecessors. His domestic administration was in many respects excellent, and advantageous to his subjects. The astonishing victories which cast so much military splendor on his reign, and which are accounted the most brilliant in English history, appear to have dazzled the eyes both of his subjects and foreigners, who placed him in the first rank of conquerors. But his wars with France and Scotland were unjust in their object ; and, after having caused great suffering and devastation, he at last found that the crowns of those kingdoms were beyond his reach.

In this reign chivalry was at its zenith in England ; and in all the virtues which adorned the knightly character, in courtesy, munificence, and gallantry, in all the delicate and magnanimous feelings, none were more conspicuous than Edward III., and his son the Black Prince. Their court was, as it were, the sun of that system which embraced the valor and nobility of the Christian world.

27. The title of Duke, now one of the highest orders of nobility, was first applied to the Black Prince ; and his father first introduced the order of the Knights of the Garter. During this reign the black death, a terrible pestilence which came across Europe from the East, prevailed ; and it is said that nearly half the population of London died, and many villages and towns were depopulated.

28. The language of the people underwent great changes during Edward's reign, and towards its close the English language was used instead of the Norman or French The English language. in the courts and in the schools. Sir John Mandeville, whose account of his travels in the East is one of the oldest books written in English prose, lived during this reign.

29. **Richard II.**, the unworthy son of Edward the Black Prince, succeeded to the throne (1377) at the age of eleven years. He was indolent, prodigal, perfidious, and Richard II. and his regents. a slave to pleasure. The administration of the government during the minority of the king was in his own name, but was conducted by a council chosen by the peers; and this council was greatly influenced, though oftentimes secretly, by the king's three uncles, — the Dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, — whose contests embroiled all the public measures. Of these the Duke of Lancaster, John of Gaunt, or Ghent (so named from the place of his birth), was the most distinguished, and was possessed of great wealth and power: but he became unpopular, particularly with the courtiers and clergy; and he was noted for being (for political reasons, as is supposed) the protector of Wickliffe the reformer, whose preaching for a number of years against the corruptions of the Church had made him prominent, and gained for him many adherents.

30. A poll-tax of three groats (about one shilling), imposed by Parliament upon every male and female above the age of fifteen years, excited universal discontent among Wat Tyler. the lower classes, on account of its injustice in requiring as much of the poor as of the rich. One of the brutal tax-gatherers, having demanded payment for a blacksmith's daughter whom the father asserted to be below the age specified, was proceeding to improper familiarities with her, when the enraged father, named Wat Tyler, dashed out the tax-gatherer's brains with a hammer. The spectators applauded the action. A spirit of sedition spread through the kingdom,

and a hundred thousand insurgents, under Tyler, were soon assembled upon Blackheath ; but the leader was slain, and his followers were finally compelled to submit. This movement is known in history as the Peasants' Revolt, or Wat Tyler's Rebellion.

31. While the kingdom was convulsed with domestic contests, it was also engaged in hostilities with France and Scotland. At War with Scotland and France. Otterburn (1388) was fought, between the English under Percy (surnamed Hotspur on account of his fiery temper) and the Scotch under Douglas, a battle, in which Percy was taken prisoner, and Douglas was slain. On this battle is founded the celebrated ballad of Chevy Chase.

32. Richard unjustly banished his cousin Henry, the eldest son and heir of John of Gaunt (Duke of Lancaster), and on The king deposed. the death of the duke he seized upon his estate ; but, the king having afterwards undertaken an expedition to Ireland in order to quell an insurrection, Henry, the young duke, took advantage of his absence, returned to England, landed at Ravenspur, soon found himself at the head of a numerous army, and compelled Richard, on his return, to resign the crown. The king being very unpopular, the Parliament readily confirmed his deposition : he was then imprisoned, and, as is generally supposed, afterwards murdered.

33. During this and the preceding reigns, John Wickliffe, the early reformer, lived. He was educated at Oxford, where Wickliffe and Chaucer. he was also master of one or two colleges, and divinity professor. Wickliffe was reputed to be highly distinguished for his theological knowledge and for his scholastic ability. He engaged in controversies with the mendicant friars, preached against the corruption and temporalities of the Church, and popularized his English translation of the Bible. John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, was his friend and protector.

Contemporary with him was Geoffrey Chaucer, called the

“father of English poetry.” He was educated at Oxford and Cambridge, and was a man of rare genius, and very popular at the brilliant court of Edward III. His principal work was the “Canterbury Tales,” in which he represents a party of thirty persons, of various occupations in life, journeying from London on a pilgrimage to the shrine of Thomas à Becket at Canterbury, and relieving the tiresomeness of the journey by telling stories. These stories contain an accurate picture of the manners and customs of his time, and his work is still regarded as an English classic. Chaucer was one of the first celebrities buried (1400) in the Poets’ Corner in Westminster Abbey.

34. The Duke of Lancaster was raised to the throne with the title of **Henry IV.**; though Edmund Mortimer was the true heir to the crown, being descended from Lionel, the third son of Edward III.; whereas Henry was **Henry IV.** the son of John of Gaunt, the fourth son of Edward III. Hence began contests between the houses of York and Lancaster.

35. At the close of this period (1399) nearly three centuries and a half had elapsed since the landing of William the Conqueror, and during this time great changes **Changes.** had taken place in the kingdom.

36. Many of the most objectionable features of the feudal system had disappeared. After the Conquest, and especially during the reign of Stephen, the number of baronial castles erected was very large. These structures, **Castles.** generally built upon a hill or rocky eminence, usually consisted of a stone tower, or keep, in some cases square, in others round, with walls several feet in thickness, and often more than a hundred feet in height, and with very narrow windows, or loopholes. The upper part of this keep was generally the residence of the baron, or lord of the castle; while the underground and the lower parts were used as a dungeon and for storerooms. Around this, in the larger structures, were one or two walls; the outer one being flanked with towers, enclosing courts within, where

were the residences of the soldiers or knights, and the retainers of the baron, and the storehouses of the establishment. Outside of the whole was a moat, or deep ditch, filled with water, over which was thrown a drawbridge, taken up at night and in times of danger. The main entrance was protected by strong iron doors, and a portcullis, which consisted of a heavy iron grating, or framework of timbers, pointed at the lower end with iron, and hung by chains, so as to be let down from the archway above, and effectually bar the entrance against intruders and hostile invasion. Some of these castles were very large, covering several acres of ground ; and they were so substantially built, that many of their ruins, after the lapse of seven or eight centuries, are at this day so strong, and so little affected by time, as to excite our admiration and wonder.

37. Around these gloomy walls were often witnessed some of the bloodiest encounters to be found in history. The barons and their followers, sallying forth from their strongholds, made war upon each other and upon the king, and committed murder and robbery in the most wanton and inhuman manner. So great became the danger from this source during the reign of Henry II., that that monarch determined to exterminate those "robbers' nests," as he was accustomed to call them ; and he accordingly caused a thousand castles to be demolished or dismantled. This gave greater security to life and property, and put a check upon the lawlessness and rapacity of the barons.

38. The power of the clergy was very great during these centuries, and the Church was often the controlling element in the government of the kingdom. The Norman prelates far excelled the Saxon church officials in their ability to manage the affairs of Church and State ; and their policy, inaugurated at the Conquest, took strong hold of the control of the government. The strife among ecclesiastics for places and their emoluments, and for worldly possessions, was intense, and not unfrequently led to quarrels and bloody

contentions. They were politicians and warriors, as well as church officials, and were active participants in all matters of public interests, and sometimes among the foremost in measures and acts of oppression. At the close of the fourteenth century, the power of the clergy had been greatly curtailed as compared with its exercise a century or two earlier.

39. This was pre-eminently the age of cathedral and church building. During the reigns of Henry III. and Edward I., Westminster Abbey was rebuilt in nearly its present condition, some alterations and additions having Cathedrals. since been made ; and York and Canterbury Cathedrals, and many others, were either rebuilt or begun during the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries. Great improvements were made in the architecture of these edifices ; and elegant stained-glass windows became quite common, many of which are at present in a good state of preservation. Church clocks began to be introduced at the close of the thirteenth century, one being placed upon the Canterbury Cathedral in 1292.

40. It is said, that, in the thirteenth century, nearly one-half of the landed estates belonged to the Church, and that the revenue received by the pope from England was Church revenue. greater than that paid to the crown. Several new religious orders were introduced, including the Dominican and the Franciscan friars, often called, from the color of Friars. their dress, Black Friars and Gray Friars.

41. There were often exhibited, for the entertainment and religious instruction of the lower classes of people, rude theatrical plays, of which the subjects were scenes from Miracle plays. the Old and New Testaments ; such as the Creation, the Fall of Man, Cain and Abel, the Deluge, the Crucifixion, and also the lives and miracles of the saints. The exhibitions were given in the churches and monasteries, and the priests and monks were among the principal actors. The incidents of the plays were all literally given, with representations of the persons of the Trinity, angels, devils, saints, and martyrs. In this the

simple faith of the common people saw no impropriety, and their religious sense was probably edified rather than shocked. The representations were very lengthy, the one on the Creation and Fall of Man occupying six days. To prevent these plays from becoming tedious to their rude audiences, comical scenes and jesting were introduced; but this finally degenerated in revelry, and the ecclesiastics were prohibited from taking part in them.

42. Judged in the light of modern times, the state of morality was then low among all classes; and the sabbath was so openly profaned by secular labor and every species of dissipation and worldly pleasure, that in 1359 the Archbishop of Canterbury issued a proclamation forbidding the opening of markets and fairs on Sunday, and commanding "all persons to go to the parish churches on that day to ask pardon for their offences," instead of devoting it to business or sinful amusements.

43. The principles set forth in Magna Charta were subsequently ratified by several sovereigns, and began to give the lower classes of people a better chance for justice. For two centuries after the Conquest, the great council of state consisted of the immediate vassals of the king; that is, of the nobility, including bishops, abbots, barons, and earls. About the middle of the thirteenth century, during the reign of Henry III., knights of the shires and citizens elected by the people were admitted, and occupied the lower end of the hall in which the council sat. This was the beginning of the House of Commons, although it did not meet in a separate chamber until the time of Edward III.

44. The cause of learning received considerable attention during the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. Several colleges and schools were established at Oxford and Cambridge, which now form a part of the universities of those well-known seats of learning. To these schools a large number of students came, not only from England, Scotland, and

Ireland, but also from the Continent. Law schools, called "Inns of Court," were established in that part of London known as Westminster, in the fourteenth century. Schools were likewise founded in London, St. Albans, and other large towns. But these institutions received their patronage very largely from the higher classes of people. In the science of astronomy considerable advancement was made; and metaphysics, mathematics, and alchemy were leading subjects of study.

Roger Bacon, a Franciscan monk and teacher at Oxford, who died about 1292, was a distinguished scholar, learned in the ancient languages and in almost all departments of knowledge. He prepared several text-books and treatises, and, with apparatus of his own construction, made extensive investigations in the natural sciences as they were then known. It is generally believed that he was familiar with the composition of gunpowder.

Some of Bacon's experiments were so wonderful and so little understood, that the ignorant and superstitious accused him of sorcery, and he was imprisoned for many years.

45. Much time and investigation were wasted in the study of alchemy, by which it was supposed that a universal solvent could be discovered that would dissolve all other substances. The philosopher's stone was also sought for, that would change the baser metals into gold. Attention was likewise given to astrology, which was the pretended art of foretelling future events by studying the heavenly bodies; and it was intimately connected with fortune-telling and kindred practices.

Magic-lanterns were invented in the reign of Henry III. (1260), and spectacles probably soon after, in the time of Edward I. Gunpowder and cannon were first used by the English in the fourteenth century.

46. From the Conquest to the death of Chaucer, changes in the language had been slowly though constantly taking place. With William came the Norman tongue, which was the language

of the court and polite society. The Saxons spoke their own tongue ; while Latin was the language of the church, of the higher institutions of learning, of the laws, and of books. For a long time the Saxon refused to learn the language of his oppressor ; while the proud Norman looked with equal disdain upon the speech of the Saxon, whom he regarded as belonging to an inferior class. Some peculiarities of the English language grew out of the relation which the different classes held to each other at that time. Menial labor was performed by the Saxon, such as the tending of the flocks and herds of domestic animals ; and by him those animals were called by such Saxon names as ox, cow, calf, sheep, and fowl. But, when those animals were killed, their meat was not for the poorest class, but was served upon the table of the nobles, where, in Norman-French, it became beef, veal, mutton, and poultry. But in course of time the better class of Saxons rose above their inferior condition, and occupied a more friendly and intimate relation to the Norman, which eventually resulted in an assimilation of the languages, as well as of the races.

The language at the close of the fourteenth century had assumed that form called Middle English, having grown up from the languages of the Saxons and the Normans, with a slight intermixture of words from the Celtic, the Latin, and the Greek. It was now spoken at court, and was the language in which books began to be written.

47. In addition to the amusements and recreations to which the Saxons had been accustomed, the feudal system introduced the tournament, a kind of military sport or exercise, in which mailed knights sought to exhibit their courage, address, and skill in arms. The knights, imbued with the spirit of chivalry, professed to be actuated by a high sense of honor, and to be the defenders of the Church and its clergy, and of noble and defenceless women, as well as to present in their own persons the embodiment of loyalty, truth, and all the nobler virtues. Some of their defensive armor

**Tourna-
ments. Chiv-
alry.**

was made of small steel plates, overlapping each other like the scales of a fish ; or of small rings, interlinked, or sewed on leather ; and sometimes of large heavy plates, bent to fit different parts of the body, and jointed to make it pliable.

The usual armor of a knight on the occasion of a tournament consisted of a helmet and visor, breastplate, or coat-of-mail, gauntlets, greaves, a shield, and a spear or lance, with its point blunted, or protected with a block of wood. Mounted upon spirited horses, and with their lances extending far before them, these knights rushed upon each other with such terrific force as not unfrequently to unhorse the riders, and even to maim and kill them. He was adjudged the bravest knight who kept his seat the longest, or broke the greatest number of lances. The prize, awarded by judges, was usually a ribbon, a scarf, or a banner, and was received by the victor at the hands of some fair lady.

These tournaments were given on great occasions, such as the coronation of a king, a distinguished victory, or a birth or marriage in royal and noble families ; and they were accompanied by much ceremony and display, and witnessed by vast crowds of the nobility, among whom ladies were always prominent. But they were demoralizing in their influence, and were at times interdicted by church and civil authorities.

Chivalry was a strange mixture of religious enthusiasm, military ardor, and gallantry. It had a few redeeming features : it softened the manners of the people in a barbarous age, and infused humanity into war when war was almost the business of life. It introduced courtesy of manners when the people were rude, required a scrupulous adherence to truth when falsehood was notoriously common, and exacted a respectful and delicate attention to the female sex in an age when such attention was needed. But it was also a school of vice, and a vaunting and hollow-hearted institution, originated and conducted for the benefit of the nobility. It never had for its object the relief and the improvement of the lowly and the poor, however worthy they might be. Tournaments ceased when the feudal system began to decay.

Horse-racing and hunting were common sports of the English, as, indeed, they have continued to be until the present time.

48. The large number of vessels brought to England by the Normans gave quite an impetus to trade and commerce. In the reign of Henry II. trade was very flourishing ; but at other periods it was greatly hindered by petty legislation and by jealousy of foreigners. Wool was a large article of export ; but Edward III. introduced Flemish weavers, and the manufacture of cloth at home became an important industry.

Dublin became the seat of an extensive commerce, and was a rival, in this respect, of London, which was considered the principal mart of the kingdom. London became the capital in the twelfth century, and is supposed to have had a population of about fifty thousand during the reign of John.

Domestic trade was commonly carried on at fairs, or in small stalls or sheds ; and persons who dealt in silks, ribbons, and other goods imported from Milan, received the name of "mil-liners."

Coal is said to have been discovered at New Castle upon Tyne, about 1234, during the reign of Henry III. Its use was at one time prohibited in London, as its smoke was supposed to be injurious to health ; but in 1381 the trade in coals from New Castle to London had become quite extensive.

49. It is not thought that agriculture made very much progress during the three centuries and a half following the Conquest.

The prevalence of war is unfavorable to agricultural pursuits. There was some improvement in farming utensils ; hand-mills for grinding grain continued in use among the lower classes, while water-mills were numerous upon the great manors. Flowers were generally cultivated by all classes ; and vegetable-gardens, fruit-orchards, and vineyards were common.

50. In the reign of John, the poorer classes were still living

in rude, thatched huts ; but the dwellings of those in better circumstances gave evidence of more comfort and convenience. They are described as generally ^{Dwellings.} oblong in shape, two stories high, and with a gable at each end. Movable stairs on the outside were used in reaching the chambers ; and a ladder led to a common room under the roof.

But at the close of the fourteenth century, great advance had been made in domestic architecture, and the houses of all classes were improved in comfort and style. The furniture of the rich was elaborately carved, and the upholstering was of silk and other costly materials. The will of an earl, made in the reign of Richard II., mentions beds of black satin, of white, red, and blue silk, and of black velvet, embroidered with gold, silver, and colors.

51. When the Normans came to England, they were more abstemious than the Saxons. They were fond of meat ; and their bread was made of rye, oats, or barley. But on special occasions their feasts were costly, and served with much ceremony and display. An old proverb implies that they had but two meals a day : —

“To rise at five, to dine at nine,
To sup at five, to bed at nine,
Makes a man live to ninety-nine.”

In the thirteenth century, the daily allowance of a farm-laborer consisted of a loaf of bread, two herrings, and milk from the dairy, or beer.

But in course of time luxurious living increased. The boar's head was the favorite royal dish, and was ushered into the dining-hall with the sound of trumpets. Rich food, spiced wines, and fermented liquors were used ; and finally gluttony and excessive drinking became so common, that a law was enacted limiting the number of courses at meals.

52. Fashions in dress were sometimes most absurd. In the twelfth century, fops wore long-pointed shoes twisted in the shape of rams' horns. Two centuries later these projecting points

turned up in front, and were fastened to the knees by chains of gold or silver ; while the head was covered with a richly embroidered hood. His hose were not both of the same color, and his jacket was party-colored, and fantastically trimmed. The style of ladies' dress was equally odd and extravagant. Head-dresses sometimes towered three feet above the head, and were decked with silken streamers several feet in length.

Much elegant embroidering was done, for dress and for house decoration, by the ladies of good families ; and some of the vestments of the clergy wrought by them are spoken of as wonderful specimens of needlework and ornamentation.

Side-saddles, for ladies' use, were introduced in the reign of Richard II.

53. The system of villenage, which had so long kept the peasant-class in a kind of slavery, was much mitigated, though not entirely abolished. The peasants were now tenants rather than serfs, and the condition of the common people was much improved. They enjoyed more of the comforts of life ; and their rights, their property, and their lives were better protected by law.

CHAPTER III.

THE BRANCH OF LANCASTER.

1399-1461, — 62 years

Henry IV.

Henry V.

Henry VI.

HENRY IV., surnamed Bolingbroke from the place of his birth, who succeeded to the throne by the deposition and murder of the lawful king (1399) and the exclusion of the rightful heir, soon found that the throne of a usurper is but a bed of thorns. A usurper and persecutor. A combination was immediately formed against him. The Scots under Douglas, and the Welsh under Owen Glendower, took part with the rebels; but their united forces were defeated in a most desperate and bloody battle at Shrewsbury, and their leader, Percy (Hotspur), was killed (1403).

While a subject, Henry was supposed to have imbibed the religious principles of his father, John of Gaunt, the patron of Wickliffe and his followers; but, after he was raised to the throne, he changed his faith, endeavored to suppress the opinions which his father had supported, and was the first English monarch who caused a subject (William Sawtree) to be put to death on account of his religious opinions.

2. Henry was distinguished for his military talents and for his political sagacity; and, had he succeeded to the throne by a just title, he might have been ranked as one of the greatest of English monarchs. He had been one of the most popular noblemen in the kingdom. Yet, although his reign was in many respects beneficial to the nation, Character and reign.

he became a most unpopular sovereign. His peace of mind was destroyed by jealousy and by remorse ; he was an object of pity even when seated on the throne ; and he felt the truth of the language which Shakspeare puts into his mouth, — “ Un-easy lies the head that wears a crown.”

3. The latter part of his life was imbittered by the extreme profligacy of his son Henry, Prince of Wales. One of the prince’s dissolute companions having been indicted before the chief justice, Sir William Gascoigne, for some misdemeanor, he was so exasperated at the issue of the trial, that he struck the judge in open court. The venerable magistrate, mindful of the dignity of his office, ordered the prince to be committed to prison. Henry quietly submitted, and acknowledged his error. When the circumstance was related to the king, he is said to have exclaimed, in a transport of joy, “ Happy is the king who has a magistrate endowed with courage to execute the laws upon such an offender ; still more happy in having a son willing to submit to such chastisement ! ”

4. Henry V., on succeeding to the throne (1413), immediately assembled his former riotous companions, acquainted them with his intended reformation, forbade their appearance in his presence till they should imitate his example, and dismissed them with liberal presents. He commended the chief justice for his impartial conduct, and encouraged him to persevere in a strict execution of the laws. This victory which he gained over himself is incomparably more honorable to him than the martial exploits which have immortalized his name.

5. The Wickliffites, or Lollards, were now numerous in England, and had for their leader the famous Sir John Oldcastle (Lord Cobham), a nobleman of distinguished talents, and high in favor with the king. But Oldcastle, by his heresy, incurred the displeasure of Henry, and was committed to the Tower, whence he escaped into Wales, and, as was reported, attempted to incite an insurrection. He was afterward captured, condemned, and put to death.

6. Before Henry came to the throne, his father (Henry IV.) had advised him to keep his subjects occupied with foreign wars, as that would prevent them from inquiring into his title to the throne. France at this time was much distracted by two rival factions, — the houses of Orléans and Burgundy, — each striving to exercise control in the kingdom during the insanity of the king, Charles VI., and the minority of his son the Dauphin, afterwards Charles VII.

7. Taking advantage of these disorders in France, Henry decided to revive his claim to the throne of that kingdom. Having hired, from Holland and other countries, a fleet of more than twelve hundred vessels, he set sail with an army of thirty thousand men, and landed at Harfleur, at the mouth of the Seine, which, after an obstinate resistance of a month, was compelled to surrender. Henry used in this attack some large cannon, called “bombards,” which he obtained from Germany, with officers to work them, and which did effectual service. An old writer says they “vomited from their fiery mouths vast quantities of stones with a vehement explosion and a terrific and intolerable noise.” Sickness soon after prevailed to such an extent in Henry’s army, that it was reduced to about ten thousand, or one-third of the number with which he left England.

8. Leaving Harfleur, Henry marched towards Calais, his army being terribly harassed and annoyed by the French for nearly a fortnight, until an engagement took place at Agincourt (*Āzhankoor*) in October, 1415. The French army numbered sixty thousand ; but, notwithstanding their great superiority in numbers, they were terribly defeated, leaving dead upon the field seven princes of royal blood, a hundred nobles, eight thousand knights, and many common soldiers ; making their loss eleven thousand killed, besides fourteen thousand prisoners taken by the English. Henry’s loss was small. This was a memorable battle, and was fought not far from the famous battlefield of Cressy. The first musical composition in English

was made in commemoration of this battle. It was written upon vellum, and is still preserved in Cambridge University. The English king immediately returned to London, where he was received with great display, and demonstrations of joy.

9. Henry made other expeditions to France, during which he overran Normandy, and occupied Caen and Rouen, and also held his court at Paris. There he married Catherine, the Princess of France, and daughter of King Charles VI. By a treaty with the queen, the king being insane, Henry was made Regent of France, and declared heir to the crown. Two years afterward (1422) he died of a mysterious disease, at Vincennes; and his funeral and burial, in Westminster Abbey, are spoken of as one of the most magnificent occasions of the kind recorded in history. Tapers were kept constantly burning upon his tomb for more than a century.

10. Henry V. was one of the most heroic of the English sovereigns, eminent as a warrior, beloved and adored by military men; and his short reign is one of the most brilliant in English history for military achievement. But his conquests were of little benefit to his people. Henry's widow married Owen Tudor, a Welsh chieftain, from whom were descended the line of English sovereigns called the Tudor family.

11. Henry VI. succeeded to the throne (1422) when an infant only nine months old, and was proclaimed king both of England and France. His education was intrusted to Cardinal Beaufort, brother of his grandfather, Henry IV.; and his uncles, the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, were appointed protectors or guardians of his dominions, — the former for France, and the latter for England. Charles VII., the Dauphin of France, being supported by the French people, recovered the kingdom by degrees; and the English, being compelled by that extraordinary heroine, Joan of Arc, to raise the siege of Orléans, were afterwards stripped of all their conquests in that country, except Calais and Guienne (*Gheén*).

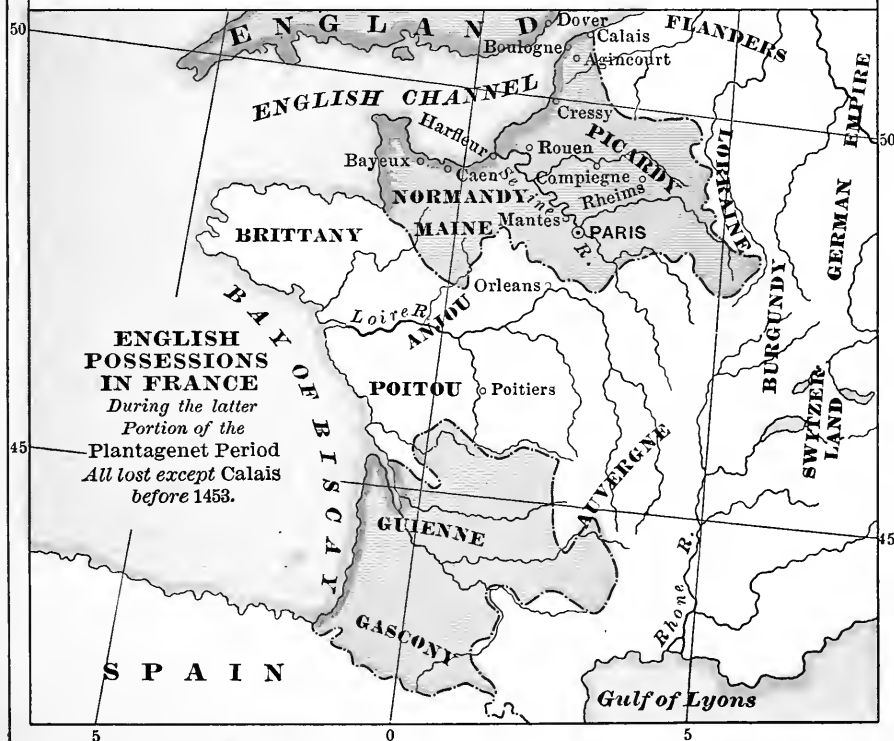
12. During these successes of the French, Orléans had been besieged by the English several months, and was upon the point of surrendering for the want of food, when the city was saved by a young peasant-girl from Lorraine, ^{Joan of Arc.} called Joan of Arc, but whose real name was Jeanne Darc (*Zhaun Dark*). She had never attended school, but had spent her time in tending her father's flocks, and in solitary musings upon the stories and lives of the saints and martyrs. She was of a deeply religious nature, and declared that she had seen visions, and heard voices, urging her to undertake the deliverance of France. Her first offer of her services was rejected, and she was thought to be insane or a sorceress; but, having gained an audience with the young king, she succeeded in being appointed to a command. Mounted upon a snow-white charger, she rode forth at the head of ten thousand troops, whom she inspired with such enthusiasm and courage, that they routed the English, who fled, saying it was useless to contend with a witch. She gained some other victories, and accompanied the king to Rheims, and assisted in his coronation there. In a battle at Compiègne (*Kom-pe-ain*) she was taken prisoner by the Duke of Burgundy, and sold to the English, who, in revenge for their loss of Orléans, gave her up to a court of French ecclesiastics, to be tried for sorcery and magic. After a trial of several months, she was convicted, and burned at the stake, in the market-place at Rouen, in May, 1431. This act reflects lasting disgrace upon the French and the English, and also upon the king for not saving her. She was neither bloodthirsty nor cruel, and had done no wrong, but had achieved success by her enthusiasm and signal courage. She is often called the Maid of Orléans.

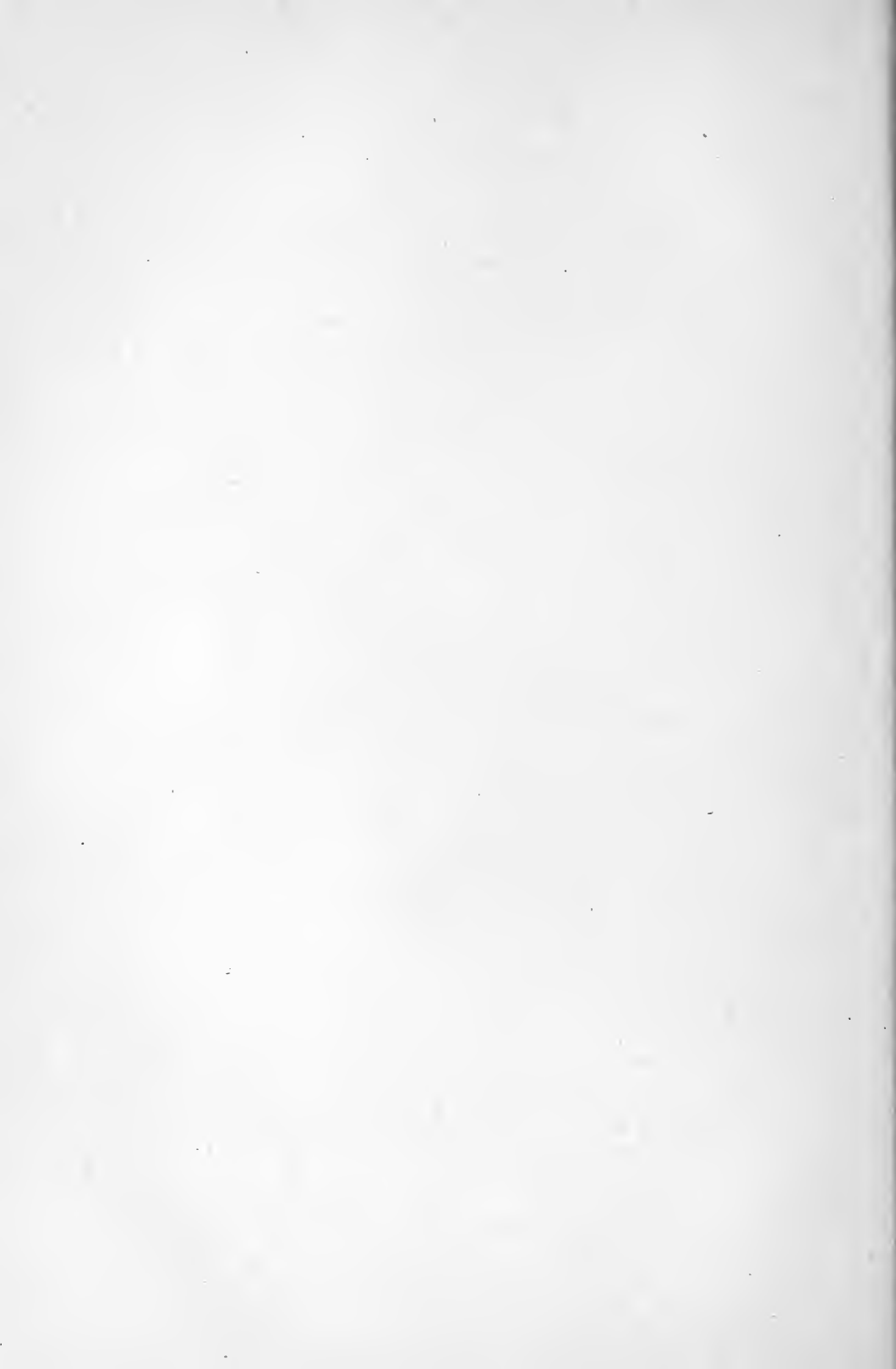
13. Henry, on coming of age, proved himself to be mild and inoffensive, but totally incapable of managing the ^{Margaret of} reins of government. He married Margaret of ^{Anjou.} Anjou (*Anzhoo*),—a woman whose distinguished talents, ambition, and heroism well fitted her to supply the defects of

her husband in the wars which distracted his reign; but her intriguing disposition and cruelty multiplied the number of her enemies. Discontents prevailing among the people, an insurrection broke out, headed by Jack Cade, who assumed the name of John Mortimer, and collected an army of twenty thousand rebels; but he was defeated and slain. The Duke of Gloucester, a favorite of the nation, the chief pillar of the house of Lancaster, and presumptive heir to the crown (that is, heir in case the king should die without issue), had opposed the marriage of Henry with Margaret. From this circumstance he became odious to the queen, and his death soon after took place in a suspicious manner. This event, added to the imbecility of the king, encouraged the Duke of York to assert his claim to the crown.

14. The houses of York and Lancaster were both descended from Edward III., — that of York from his third son, and that of Lancaster from his fourth. The rightful title was, **Wars of the Roses.** of course, on the side of the former. Each party was distinguished by a particular badge, or symbol: that of the house of York was a white rose, and that of Lancaster a red one: hence the civil contests were styled the wars of the Roses.

This fatal quarrel, which now (1455) broke out into open hostilities, lasted thirty years, was signalized by twelve sanguinary pitched battles, and marked by the most unrelenting barbarity. During the contest more than one hundred thousand of the bravest men of the nation, including eighty princes of the blood, fell on the field, or were executed on the scaffold. In the battles of St. Alban's and Northampton the Lancastrians were defeated, and the king was taken prisoner; but Queen Margaret, having collected a large army, gained the battle of Wakefield (1460), in which the Duke of York was defeated and slain. But his son and successor, at the head of a numerous army, entered London amidst the shouts of the citizens, and was proclaimed king (1461) by the title of Edward IV.





CHAPTER IV.

THE BRANCH OF YORK.

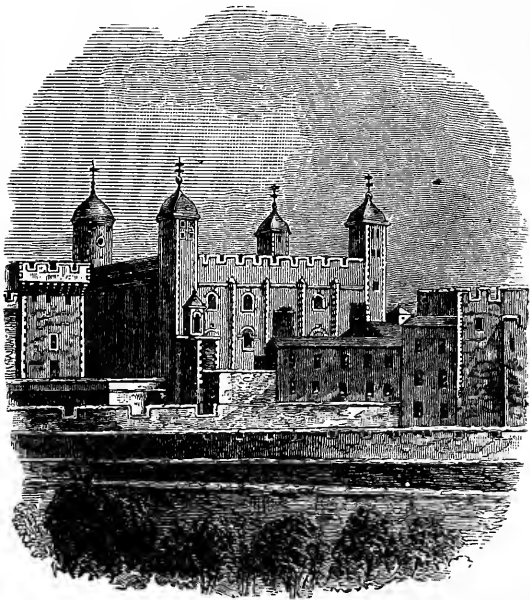
1461 to 1485, — 24 years.

Edward IV.

Edward V.

Richard III.

THE new king, **Edward IV.** (1461), was not permitted to enjoy the crown in peace. The heroic Margaret again collected an army of sixty thousand men, which **Edward IV.** was met by the Yorkists to the number of upwards **and Towton.** of forty thousand, under the command of Edward and the Earl of Warwick. A tremendous battle was fought (1461) at Towton, in which Edward obtained a decisive victory; and upwards of thirty-six thousand Englishmen, slain by one another's hands, were left dead on the field. Henry, having been taken prisoner, was confined in the Tower, and there (after being liberated, and a second time imprisoned) was finally murdered (1471), as was supposed, by the Duke of Gloucester, afterwards Richard III.



THE TOWER OF LONDON.

2. The unfortunate queen, accompanied by her son, a boy eight years old, while flying from her enemies, was benighted in Hexam Forest, and fell into the hands of ruffians. **The queen a fugitive.** who stripped her of her jewels, and treated her with great indignity. After she was liberated from them, being overcome with fatigue and terror, she sank in despair, but was suddenly roused by the approach of a robber with a drawn sword. Seeing no way to escape, she rose, and presented to him her child: "My friend," said she, "here is your king's son, whom I commit to your protection." The man, pleased with this unexpected confidence reposed in him, afforded every assistance in his power, and conducted the mother and son through numerous perils to a small seaport, whence they sailed to Flanders.

3. The house of York had been hitherto supported by the important assistance of Nevil, Earl of Warwick, the most powerful baron in England, and the greatest general of his time; but, Edward having given offence to his benefactor, Warwick was induced to abandon him, and to support the Lancastrians. By his exertions Edward was deposed; and Henry, after having been a prisoner six years in the Tower, was released, and again proclaimed king. Thus Warwick, having restored Henry (whom he had deposed) and pulled down Edward (whom he had placed on the throne), obtained the title of "King-Maker." But, in the bloody battle of Barnet, Edward prevailed, and the brave Warwick was slain. **Earl of Warwick.** The intrepid Margaret, having returned to England, made a last effort for the crown in the desperate battle of Tewksbury (1471), which proved fatal to her hopes. **Margaret defeated.** Her son was slain, and she herself was taken prisoner, but was afterwards ransomed by the King of France; and in that country she passed the remainder of her life in obscurity and neglect.

4. Edward, being now secured on the throne, gave himself up to unrestrained indulgence in acts of tyranny, cruelty, and debauchery. His brother, the Duke of Clarence, who had

assisted him in gaining the crown, he caused, with the concurrence of his other brother, the Duke of Gloucester, to be impeached and condemned ; and he is said to have been drowned in a butt of Malmsey wine. Edward was possessed of talents, and was reputed the handsomest and most accomplished man of his time in England. The love of pleasure was his ruling passion. "His character," says an elegant writer, "is easily summed up : his good qualities were courage and beauty ; his bad qualities, every vice."

Edward IV.'s character and conduct.

5. It was in this reign that the art of printing was introduced into England by William Caxton, a London merchant and a fine scholar. He had spent several years abroad, in the service of the government, and returned from Flanders about 1474, bringing with him a knowledge of the new art, which had been discovered in Germany more than thirty years before. He set up a printing-office near Westminster Abbey (1477) ; and one of the first books printed was a translation from the French called the "Game and Playe of the Chesse."

Printing.

6. Edward IV. left two sons, the eldest of whom, being only thirteen years of age, was proclaimed king (1483) by the title of **Edward V.** Richard, Duke of Gloucester, brother to Edward IV., being appointed protector, caused Lord Hastings and other distinguished persons to be executed without trial, seized the crown on the pretence that his nephew (Edward V.) and his brother (the Duke of York) were illegitimate, and procured himself to be proclaimed king (1483) by the title of **Richard III.** After two months the young princes disappeared, and are said to have been smothered in the Tower by order of Richard.

Richard III., the usurper.

7. In seeking the throne, Richard III. had unscrupulously trampled upon the rights of the people, and had probably shed the blood of some of his nearest relations. But his wicked career found an avenger in the Earl of Richmond, the only surviving heir of the house of Lancaster.

Battle of Bosworth.

The armies of the two rivals met at Bosworth in Leicestershire, in the central part of England (1485), where a desperate battle was fought, which, by reason of Lord Stanley's going over to Richmond, proved fatal to Richard, who was defeated and slain; and his rival was crowned on the field by the title of **Henry VII.**

8. Richard, who was a man of talents and courage, could conceal the most bloody projects under the mask of affection and friendship; and his insatiable ambition led him to perpetrate the most atrocious crimes. He was somewhat deformed in person, but could be affable in manners when it suited his purpose. His sole ambition was to be king of England; and to the accomplishment of that end he sacrificed principle and friends, or whatever stood in his way. But some of his acts were beneficial. He rewarded those friends who were faithful to him, and restored to their owners many confiscated estates. Trade and commerce were encouraged by him, and he established a kind of post system by regular couriers for the transmission of information.

9. The battle of Bosworth terminated the long and bloody conflicts between the two houses of York and Lancaster, which had reduced the kingdom to a state of almost savage barbarity; laws, arts, and commerce being entirely neglected for the practice of arms. During these wars constitutional liberty received a severe check, and the whole course of civilization was turned backward. But out of much evil some good was derived. The power of the ancient nobility was gone forever; for, during the long and bloody wars, the greater part of the nobles perished, and feudalism almost disappeared.

10. But the wars of the Roses were not fought in the interests of the people: they were the melancholy result of most bitter and malignant feuds among rival families of the nobility. And as these wars were carried on principally by and for the nobility, so their immediate effects fell at

first more directly upon that class than upon the common people at large and the industrial classes. But the long continuance of the wars, and the almost exclusive devotion to arms by those who ought to have been leaders in good government and in business, finally involved the whole nation in consequences most disastrous to the welfare of the people and to the progress of freedom.

11. It is difficult to find in the annals of the past a sadder and more disgusting chapter of history than that which details the wars between the houses of York and Lancaster. **Character of** The conduct of these wars was everywhere savage **the wars.** and brutal, and was destitute of that spirit of chivalry which had before been characteristic of the English people. The most wanton exhibitions of revenge were common on all sides, and often resulted in the execution of personal enemies in the most inhuman and disgraceful manner. Patriotism did not actuate either party, nor characterize their conduct in the wars. Selfishness and revenge seemed to be the leading motives; and the most unblushing treason went unrebuked, and was often at a premium. The nobler traits of human character seemed to be extinguished or repressed, and the baser passions reigned triumphant. But for all this suffering and shame, the nation has nought to show that redounds to its credit.

12. The serfs and the lower orders of the people served in the wars of the Roses; and they could never afterwards be reduced to their former state of servitude, **The serfs, &c.** but enjoyed greater privileges, living in better houses, and having more of the comforts of life.

13. Several new institutions of learning were founded during these reigns, — King's and Queen's Colleges in Cambridge (1441–48), and Magdalen College (1457) at Ox- **New col- leges.** ford, three of the finest specimens of Gothic architecture in existence. Eton College, near Windsor, a preparatory school for the sons of the nobility, was founded in 1440; and the Bodleian Library at Oxford was erected in 1445–80.

A. — Topics for Outside Reading.

1. Results of the Norman Conquest: effects on commerce, language, government, civilization in England.

FREEMAN, "Short History," Ch. XIV. For "Doomsday Book," see COLBY, No. 15.

2. Archbishop Anselm.

GARDINER, I., 117-8, 125-6. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XII. On the death of William II, see COMAN and BATES, 45.

3. Henry I.'s charter of liberties.

KENDALL, No. 17. COLBY, No. 19. Make a list of Henry's promises.

For the "White Ship," see COMAN and BATES, 48. COLBY, No. 20.

4. The anarchy of Stephen's reign.

GARDINER, I., 134-5. GUEST, 160. COLBY, No. 21. KENDALL, No. 18.

5. Henry II.

Character and personal appearance; GREEN, 104-5. GARDINER, I., 138. KENDALL, No. 19. STUBBS, "Early Plantagenets," 34.

Legal reforms; MONTAGUE, "Elements of English Constitutional History," 47-50. GARDINER, I., 146-8.

Military reforms; MONTAGUE, 41, 50. GARDINER, I., 141, 154.

Thomas Becket; GARDINER, I., 140, 142-6, 149-51. GREEN, 106-9. STUBBS, Ch. IV. MONTAGUE, 42-5. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XIV. KENDALL, Nos. 20, 21. COLBY, No. 23. COMAN and BATES, 63.

6. Richard I.

Crusade; CREIGHTON, "Stories," XV.-XVII. COMAN and BATES, 67. COLBY, No. 27.

Growth of English towns; MONTAGUE, 35. COLBY, No. 28. GARDINER, I., 168-70.

7. John.

Loss of Normandy ; GARDINER, I., 173-6. GREEN, 115. STUBBS, "Early Plantagenets," 129-37.

Quarrel with the Church ; GARDINER, I., 176-80. STUBBS, 137-43. GREEN, 122-6. COLBY, No. 29.

Magna Charta ; "Old South Leaflet," No. 5. COLBY, No. 30. KENDALL, No. 24. GARDINER, I., 181-4. MONTAGUE, 53-7.

8. The beginnings of Parliament.

GARDINER, I., 193-203, 218. MONTAGUE, 69, 73-81. KENDALL, No. 28, or COLBY, No. 34. STUBBS, 172, Ch. IX., 220-7. GARDINER, "Historical Biographies," Simon de Montfort.

9. The wars with Scotland.

GARDINER, I., 214-19, 221-27. STUBBS, 229-32, 245-9, 261. KENDALL, No. 29. COLBY, No. 35. GUEST, Ch. XXV., XXVI. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XIX. COMAN and BATES, 97.

10. The Hundred Years' War, to 1360.

GARDINER, I., 232-43, 251-4. GREEN, 223-31. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XXXIII., XXIV. KENDALL, No. 30. COLBY, No. 39.

For the growth of Parliament's power during the period, see MONTAGUE, 81-5.

On the Black Prince, see GARDINER, "Historical Biographies," 44.

11. Labor troubles and the peasants' revolt.

On the Black Death ; COLBY, No. 40. KENDALL, No. 33. GUEST, 269. GREEN, 247.

Statute of Laborers ; GARDINER, I., 248-50. GUEST, 270-2. GREEN, 248.

Peasants' revolt ; GARDINER, I., 267-9. GUEST, 298-303. GREEN, 250-8. COLBY, No. 42. KENDALL, No. 34. CREIGHTON, "Social England," Ch. IV. COMAN and BATES, 127.

12. John Wyclif and the attacks on the Church.

GARDINER, I., 257-61, 266. GREEN, 235-44. GUEST, 292-7. COLBY, No. 41. KENDALL, No. 35. "Old South Leaflet," No. 57. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XXVI.

13. The French War renewed — Joan of Arc.

GARDINER, I., 300-20. GUEST, 324-47. GREEN, 267-70, 274-81. COLBY, No. 45. COMAN and BATES, 182.

14. Wars of the Roses.

Details in GARDINER, I., KENDALL, Nos. 37-43.

For causes of the new monarchy; GREEN, 288-92. COLBY, No. 48 (Princes in the Tower). CREIGHTON, "Stories," XXVII., XXVIII. COMAN and BATES, 217.

B. — Topics for Special Reports.

WILLIAM I.

1. How William kept the English and Normans under control.

GARDINER, I., 104-6. MONTAGUE, 23.

2. The Bayeux tapestry.

Pictures in GARDINER, I., 91-8.

3. Hereward, last of the Saxons.

4. Did feudalism in England begin in the reign of William I?

MONTAGUE, 16-21. Am. Hist. Review, Oct., 1901.

5. The great gemote at Salisbury, 1086.

HENRY II.

1. Henry's conquest of Ireland.

JOHN.

1. What is the difference between an interdict and an excommunication?

2. Pope Innocent III.

3. Study Magna Charta for answers to the following questions :

- a.* What classes of people are granted rights ?
- b.* Make a list of some of John's illegal acts.
- c.* What was the composition of the Great Council at this time ?
- d.* How were the members to be summoned ?
- e.* What arrangement was made to secure the king's observance of the charter ?

HENRY III.

1. The coming of the Friars.

GARDINER, I., 190-2. GUEST, 211-13. GREEN, 148-51.

EDWARD I.

1. The Confirmation of the charters, 1297.

MONTAGUE, 70. GARDINER, I., 220-1.

EDWARD II.

1. The duties of a tenant.

KENDALL, No. 32.

THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.

1. English and French methods of warfare.

GARDINER, I., 241-2.

2. What powers did Parliament gain during this period ?

MONTAGUE, 81.

Why was the time favorable to growth ?

3. Of what historical value are the Canterbury tales ? Who wrote them ?

4. Travelling in England in the fourteenth century.

GARDINER, I., 272-5.

C. — Map Work.

1. The extent of Henry II's possessions, and how he obtained them.
2. The Holy Land, and places connected with Richard I.
3. Sketch a map of Scotland, and locate the important battles.
4. France by the peace of Bretigny; locate Calais, Crecy, Poitiers, Agincourt, Orleans, Troyes.
5. Locate Wakefield, Towton, Barnet, Bosworth. What immediate result did each have?

PART III.

MODERN ENGLAND.

FROM THE REIGN OF HENRY VII. (1485) TO THE PRESENT
TIME.

CHAPTER I.

THE TUDOR FAMILY.

1485 to 1603, — 118 years.

Henry VII. Henry VIII. Edward VI. Mary. Elizabeth.

THE hereditary right of **Henry VII.** (1485) to the crown was very defective ; but he strengthened his claim by marrying Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. ; **Henry VII.'s** and in this way the two houses of York and Lancaster were united. Henry was the son of Margaret (great-grand-daughter of John of Gaunt) and of Edmond Tudor. The sovereigns of the house of Tudor were arbitrary in their principles and character ; but their reign, though disturbed by conflicts both domestic and foreign, was, notwithstanding, less convulsed by war than that of any other family of English kings.

2. The policy of Henry was pacific, and his reign was comparatively tranquil ; yet it was disturbed by several plots and conspiracies, two of which were of a singular character. One of these was the attempt of Lambert Simmel, the son of a baker, to counterfeit the person of the

Two pre-
tenders.

Earl of Warwick : the other was a similar attempt of Perkin Warbeck to counterfeit the Duke of York, who is said to have been smothered in the Tower by the order of Richard III. Both of the adventurers aspired to the crown, and met with considerable support from the people. Simnel, after being proclaimed King of England and Ireland at Dublin, was taken prisoner, and, instead of being executed, was made a scullion in the king's kitchen, and afterwards promoted to be falconer. Perkin Warbeck, who maintained his cause by force of arms for five years, was supported by many of the nobility, and acknowledged by the kings of France and Scotland ; but, being at last taken prisoner, he was executed as a traitor. And, near the same time, the real Earl of Warwick (the son of the Duke of Clarence, and nephew of Edward IV.), the last male of the Plantagenets, who had been imprisoned from his childhood for no other crime than his birth, was condemned and executed on a charge of treason.

3. Henry VII. was more deficient in the feelings of the heart than in the qualities of the mind, and, though much respected, Henry VII.'s was little beloved. He is described as a tall, thin character. man, with a very grave countenance, and reserved in his manners. He manifested no interest in public amusements, but was wholly devoted to business, which he conducted with much prudence and sagacity. But he was suspicious in his temper, and in government very despotic. The love of money was his ruling passion ; and his avaricious disposition showed itself in all his acts, public and private. To obtain money for his own treasury, he often descended to acts of meanness and extortion. Richard Empson and Edmund Dudley, two lawyers, were his unprincipled agents in this work of rapacity and oppression. They looked up old and obsolete laws, by which they contrived to impose enormous fines, and to decree the forfeiture of much property, and many estates and privileges, which could be redeemed only by paying the most exorbitant sums of money. By his frugality and arbitrary exac-

tions Henry accumulated immense wealth, and is said to have left at his death, in ready money, the sum of one million eight hundred thousand pounds,—an enormous amount of specie for that age, equivalent to ten million pounds, or, according to some, to sixteen million pounds, at present.

4. His reign was prosperous at home, and respected abroad ; and, though not a popular sovereign, he was, perhaps, next to Alfred, the most useful prince that had hitherto sat on the throne of England. Many wise and salutary laws were enacted during his reign, habits of industry were promoted in business and in all the affairs of life, and commerce was greatly encouraged. His fondness for money prevented him from expending it in unnecessary wars, and hence he taught the peaceful arts of civilized life to a warlike and turbulent people. The most troublesome class with whom he had to contend was the aristocracy who had survived the wars of the Roses, and who were fractious and insolent. But he succeeded in reducing them to subordination ; and, by permitting the nobles to alienate their lands, he weakened their power, raised the respectability of the lower orders, and gave a mortal wound to the feudal system. He expended fourteen thousand pounds in building one ship, named “The Great Harry,” which may be considered as the beginning of the English navy, inasmuch as the government, before this period, had no other mode of raising a fleet than by hiring or pressing the vessels of merchants.

5. It was during the reign of Henry VII. (1492) that America was discovered by Columbus, under the patronage of Isabella, Queen of Spain. This event gave a great impulse to the spirit of maritime adventure throughout Western Europe, and eventually contributed much to the improvement of trade and commerce. Under a commission from Henry, John Cabot, a Venetian residing at Bristol, with his son Sebastian, made a voyage to the New World (1497), and discovered the coast of North America from Labrador southward. The Cabots received no assistance from Henry, except their

charter, but promised to give him one-fifth of the profits of the adventure. This was the origin of the English claim to a portion of the New World. Sebastian Cabot published the first map of the world which included both hemispheres. Maps and sea-charts now became common in England. Great interest was manifested in new discoveries, and the study of geography received much attention.

6. There was also, during this period, a remarkable revival of learning, which had been neglected and in low repute during the wars of the Roses. This was brought about in large measure by the introduction of printing. Hitherto books had been made only by the slow, laborious, and costly process of transcribing by hand. About the year 1400, when the pay of a laborer was but a penny or two, a book of homilies cost from ten to forty pounds. But the art of printing rapidly increased the number of books, and lessened their cost, and caused a general dissemination of information. In the reign of Richard III. the laws which were to be obeyed by the English people were for the first time enacted in the English language, and these laws were also the first laws printed in England.

7. The Star Chamber Court was instituted by Henry VII., so called from the gilded stars on the ceiling of the room in Westminster Palace where it met. It was composed of seven members, was entirely under the control of the king, and had charge, without jury, of high crimes and misdemeanors against the government and the administration of justice. In later years it became tyrannical and odious.

8. Henry's son Arthur married Catherine of Aragon, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain; and his daughter Margaret became the wife of James (Stuart) IV. of Scotland, from whom descended the house of Stuart.

9. Henry died of consumption, in 1509, and was buried in the Chapel of Henry VII., so called, which he had built as a

considerable addition to the east end of Westminster Abbey. It is very elaborately finished in the style called Perpendicular Gothic, and is probably one of the best specimens of Tudor architecture in existence.

Henry's
death.

10. No monarch ever succeeded to the throne of England with brighter prospects than **Henry VIII.** (1509). Uniting in his person the claims of the two houses of York and Lancaster, his title was undisputed. The treasury was well stored, the nation at peace, and the state of the country prosperous. He was eighteen years of age, and of beautiful person and accomplished manners. He possessed fine talents and considerable learning, being master of four languages, a good student in theology, of a fine musical taste, and familiar with the sciences of medicine, engineering, and ship-building. In his disposition he was frank and open, and was regarded by the people with affection and high expectations. But these expectations were wofully disappointed. As the character of the king developed itself, he was found to be destitute both of wisdom and virtue ; and he proved himself to be unprincipled and cruel. Like his father, he was immoderately fond of getting money ; but, unlike him, he spent it with a prodigal hand. In his friendships he was fickle, and in his resentments merciless ; and he was capable of sending a minister or a wife to the scaffold with apparently little feeling of compunction.

Prospects of
Henry VIII.

11. With the aristocracy his government was but little short of despotism ; but, when dealing with the great mass of the people, he was sometimes compelled to yield to the popular will. In general, however, there was a degrading servility of the people and Parliament in tamely submitting to his tyranny, or becoming the passive instruments of its exercise. He chose for his ministers men of eminent talents, but he made them feel the effects of his caprice and cruelty. Archbishop Cranmer was the only one of great distinction among them who had the good fortune to retain to the last his confidence and regard.

12. By his profusion and expensive pleasures he soon exhausted the treasures which he inherited from his father.

Foreign war. Though his military operations were not numerous, yet in the early part of his reign he made war against Louis XII. of France, invaded the country, and at Guinegate gained the battle of the Spurs, so named from the rapid flight of the French. The Scots sympathized with the

Flodden Field. French ; and, having invaded England, their army was met by the English, under the Earl of Surrey, at Flodden Field, near the Cheviot Hills. A desperate engagement ensued (1513), in which the Scots were utterly defeated ; their king, James IV., and more than ten thousand knights, being slain. Henry was also, in some degree, involved in the wars of the two great rivals of the age, — Charles V. of Germany, and Francis I. of France. In 1520 Henry visited France for a conference with the French king in regard to an alliance against Germany. They met near Guines (*Gheen*), not far from Calais ; and so gorgeous and costly were the preparations made by both courts, that the place of meeting was called the "Field of the Cloth of Gold." Interviews and entertainments were continued more than two weeks ; but Henry was already favorably disposed towards the German emperor, and no alliance was formed.

13. During this reign, an important change took place in the Church in England, in its relations to the central ecclesiastical authorities at Rome, and afterwards in its faith and doctrine. Some years before, a movement was started upon the Continent which resulted in dividing the Catholic Church into two sections, from one of which sprang, at different times, the various organizations embraced under the general name of "Protestants." It was at first a religious and ecclesiastical movement, in whose discussions were prominent such subjects as granting of indulgences, the nature and rule of faith, good works, the rights of conscience and private judgment, and the Bible as the rule of faith and practice. But afterwards

the movement assumed also a political and social character, and engrossed the attention of a large portion of Europe, and materially affected the whole framework of society and its institutions. This is called in history the great Reformation. The term "Protestants" was derived from a *protest* made by some German princes and deputies against a decree of the Diet of Spire, about 1529, to support the Church of Rome. The leader of the Reformation in Germany was Martin Luther.

Before he arrived at the age of thirty, Henry wrote a book, in Latin, on the Seven Sacraments, against Luther, which pleased the Pope so much, that he conferred on him the title of "Defender of the Faith," — a title which his successors have ever since retained.

14. The most important public character in England at this time was Thomas Wolsey (*Wool'-ze*), a fine scholar, an able statesman, and a man of magnificent and courtly bearing. He held successively the offices of bishop, ^{Cardinal} ~~Wolsey.~~ archbishop, cardinal, lord-chancellor, and papal legate. His style of living was princely in the extreme. He was clad in silks and satins of scarlet or crimson, with gloves and hat of the same colors, and shoes inlaid with pearls and diamonds. His train was composed of eight hundred persons, with a body-guard of knights and squires; while his domestic servants were richly clad, his cook wearing silks and satins, and a gold chain around his neck. When he appeared in public, he equalled, in display and ceremony, royalty itself. Wolsey was the prime mover in all the principal events of Henry's reign for more than fifteen years, and on one or two occasions was a prominent candidate for the papal chair. He built a splendid palace, still in existence, at Hampton Court, near London, which he presented to his royal master.

15. But the most memorable transactions of Henry's reign were his matrimonial alliances and the consequences ^{Matrimonial} ~~troubles.~~ which flowed from them. His first wife was Catherine of Aragon, widow of his elder brother Arthur, daughter

of Ferdinand of Spain, and aunt of Charles V. He had been contracted to her at a very early age by the influence of his father ; and, after having lived with her about eighteen years, he professed to feel conscientious scruples respecting the lawfulness of the marriage, on account of her having been the wife of his brother ; and, conceiving a passion for the beautiful and accomplished Anne Boleyn (*An Bul'-en*), he applied to the Pope for a divorce. Having experienced various delays, and imagining that his favorite minister, Cardinal Wolsey, was the chief obstacle in the way of effecting his object, the king resolved on his ruin, and ordered him to be arrested for high treason. But the haughty cardinal soon after fell sick and died, having exclaimed, in the pangs of remorse, "Had I but served God as diligently as I have served the king, he would not have given

me over in my gray hairs." Wolsey was succeeded
 More. by Sir Thomas More, a distinguished scholar and public man, who was the author of a book in Latin called "Utopia," in which he describes an imaginary commonwealth in an island of that name.

The opinions of various universities favorable to Henry's views having been obtained, and the Pope failing to grant the
 Quarrel with the Papacy. divorce, the king caused a court to be held under Cranmer, which pronounced his marriage invalid ; and Lady Anne was soon after crowned queen. The papal jurisdiction in England was immediately abolished (1534), some alterations made in the doctrines and forms of religion, and the king was declared the supreme head of the English Church. Thomas Cromwell (*Krum'-wel*), his prime-minister, and afterwards the Earl of Essex, was appointed vicar-general of the Church. He was favorable to the reformers, and was instrumental in the suppression of many monasteries and religious houses, from whose treasuries and lands large sums of money were realized.

16. This bold measure greatly aided the reformation in religion ; but such a result was probably no part of the king's

intention. Though Henry ceased to acknowledge allegiance to the Church of Rome, he was far from being a Protestant. He arrogated infallibility to himself, and caused the law of the *Six Articles* of religion, termed the "Bloody Statute," to be enacted, and condemned to death both Catholics and Protestants who ventured to maintain opinions in opposition to his own. The venerable Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More, two conscientious Catholics, were beheaded for refusing to acknowledge his supremacy and the validity of his marriage with Anne Boleyn. In less than three years after his new marriage he caused Anne Boleyn to be condemned and beheaded, in order to gratify his fondness for Jane Seymour, whom he married the day after the execution, and who died soon after giving birth to Prince Edward. He next married Anne of Cleves, but soon discarded her because he did not find her so handsome as she had been represented; and Cromwell, his prime-minister, having been instrumental in bringing about this joyless marriage, lost the favor of his sovereign, and suffered death on the scaffold. Catherine Howard, whom he next married, was condemned and executed for adultery. But Catherine Parr, his sixth wife, had the good fortune to survive him. During the latter part of his life Henry became quite infirm and gross. He died in 1547, aged fifty-six years.

A perse-
cutor.

More matri-
monial
troubles.

17. Some recent historians take a view of Henry's life and character more favorable than that entertained by the enemies of the Tudor family. The moral tone of public opinion in England at that time was low; yet this cannot account for very many of the acts for which he is most severely judged.

Henry in
history.

18. Henry's reign was one of considerable activity, during which events took place that were important, and far-reaching in their consequences. Trade, commerce, and ship-building were encouraged; and free labor, instead of that of serfs, gave the lower classes better homes and more

Important
events.

of the comforts of life. The printing-press gave a quickening influence in the diffusion of knowledge ; and an English translation of the Bible was used in the churches, and the services were, in part at least, conducted in the English language. In learning, a revival took place, which found able patrons in Wolsey and More ; and Erasmus, a distinguished Dutch scholar, was for a few years professor of Greek at Cambridge, and did much to promote classical scholarship and learning. William Lilly, one of the first scholars of his age, had a private school in London about 1509, and is said to have been the first person who taught Greek in that city. Soon afterwards he became the first master of St. Paul's School, founded about that time in London ; and he published a Latin grammar, which was for a long time used in all the schools of England, and which, indeed, may be called the foundation of all the Latin grammars since published. The science of medicine, and its application to the saving of human life and the amelioration of suffering, made great progress at this time.

Pins were first introduced from France by Queen Catherine Howard, and were an expensive luxury ; and the gold coin representing the value of a pound sterling was first called a sovereign during this reign. Wales had its first representative in Parliament at this time.

19. Henry VIII. left three children, — *Mary*, daughter of Catherine of Aragon ; *Elizabeth*, daughter of Anne Boleyn ; and *Edward*, son of Jane Seymour. The last succeeded him (1547), with the title of **Edward VI.**, in his tenth year ; Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, uncle of the young king, being appointed protector ; and after his fall the Duke of Northumberland was raised to the same office. Edward's short reign was distracted by contests between those to whom the direction of public affairs was intrusted. But the Protestant influence prevailed in the government, the cause of the Reformation was promoted, and the reformed liturgy and Book of Common Prayer was modelled under the direction of

Cranmer ; yet a great part of the people were still attached to the Catholic faith.

20. Edward, a prince of great hopes and virtues, died in his sixteenth year, deeply lamented. So different was his character from that of his father, that he is said never to have signed an order for an execution against any person without shedding tears. Just before his death he had been prevailed upon, by the interested influence and intrigues of the Duke of Northumberland, the protector, to set aside his sisters Mary and Elizabeth, and bequeath the crown to Jane Grey, great-grand-daughter of Henry VII., who was married to Lord Guilford Dudley, a son of the protector. His character.

21. Immediately after the death of Edward, Lady Jane Grey, who had been appointed successor by the intrigues of her friends, was proclaimed queen by her adherents ; but, after wearing the crown ten days, she resigned it, and would gladly have returned to private life. Lady Jane Grey. Mary was soon acknowledged the rightful heir, and succeeded to the throne in 1553. The youth and innocence of Lady Jane and her husband (neither of them exceeding their seventeenth year) pleaded strongly in their favor ; yet they were both seized, and cast into the Tower.

22. In the second year after she succeeded to the throne, Mary was married to Philip II. of Spain, — a union unpopular with her subjects, and productive of little happiness to herself. Upon the announcement of this projected marriage several rebellions took place, and in one of these some of the friends of Lady Jane Grey took part. This sealed the fate of the unfortunate lady, and she and her husband were soon after put to death. Her marriage.

23. Lady Jane Grey, who is described as a rare scholar, and a young woman of singular virtues and accomplishments, sent, on the day of her execution, a message to her husband, who desired to see her, informing him that the tenderness of their last interview would be too much for Character of Jane Grey.

her to bear. "Tell him," added she, "that our separation will be only for a moment. We shall soon meet each other in a place where our affections shall be forever united, and where misfortunes will never more disturb our eternal felicity." Lady Jane's tutor was Sir Roger Ascham, one of the most eminent scholars of the time, and a distinguished teacher, who numbered among his pupils Queen Elizabeth, Edward VI., and many of the children of the nobility.

24. Mary was educated a strict Catholic ; and she caused to be annulled many of the acts of her father, Henry VIII., and of her brother, Edward VI., in favor of the Protestant religion. Northumberland was beheaded ; and Archbishop Cranmer, who assisted Henry VIII. in his divorce from Mary's mother, was imprisoned in the Tower.

25. Mary's early life was one of sorrow and suffering. The unfortunate influence of her father's domestic life, and the fear and persecution which she suffered at the hands of her enemies, unfavorably affected her health and temper : hence, in her efforts to re-establish and protect the Catholic Church, which she sincerely believed to be the true church, she was led to extreme measures. A general persecution was commenced against the reformers. The men who had been most forward in establishing the Protestant religion in England were singled out for punishment ; and among the most eminent martyrs who were burnt at Smithfield and at Oxford about 1555 were Archbishop Cranmer, John Rogers (canon of St. Paul's), and Bishops Latimer, Ridley, Hooper, and Ferrar. More than two hundred and eighty persons perished at the stake, including fifty-five women and four children. By these proceedings the feelings of the people were shocked. The excellent character of most of the sufferers, and the undaunted spirit which they exhibited, produced a strong sensation in their favor, and diminished the influence of the Church of Rome ; so that these measures tended to forward, rather than to check, the progress of the Reformation.

26. Through the influence of her husband, Mary became involved in the war between Spain and France ; and in 1558 the French, under the Duke of Guise (*Gweez*), The loss of Calais. besieged and retook Calais, which had been in the hands of the English more than two hundred years. The loss of this stronghold, the last of her possessions in France, was a severe blow to the queen ; and soon after this event she died, feeling bitter vexation for the loss, and for being aware that she was an object of aversion to her husband and to a great part of her subjects. Mary's history has been oftener written by her enemies, and in a partisan spirit, than by her friends ; and it is more than probable that full justice has not been done to some of her virtues and good qualities, which are matters of history, though seldom mentioned or made prominent.

27. The accession of **Elizabeth** to the throne in 1558, was hailed by the nation with joyful acclamations. Scarcely had she entered upon her new duties when she received Elizabeth's offers of marriage. an offer of marriage from Philip II. of Spain, the husband of her late sister Mary. Philip's kingdom at this time embraced Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Netherlands, and portions of the East and the West Indies ; and he hoped, by marrying Elizabeth, to add England also to his realm. But the offer was declined, as were similar ones from the kings of Denmark and Sweden. In the following year the Commons asked the queen to fix her choice of a husband : but she replied that she had espoused the kingdom ; England was her husband, and all Englishmen her children ; and that, while engaged in rearing such a family, her life could not be considered unprofitable.

28. Elizabeth had a long and auspicious reign, during which tranquillity was maintained in her dominions, while the neighboring nations were convulsed with dissensions ; and Character of her reign. England rose from the rank of a secondary kingdom to a level with the first states of Europe. The Protestant religion was again restored and protected, and the Church of England was established in its present form.

Two important acts were passed soon after her accession to the throne. The first, called "The Act of Supremacy," required all officers, spiritual and temporal, to acknowledge Elizabeth under oath as "Supreme Governor" of the Church, as well as of the realm. Severe penalties were inflicted upon those refusing. The other statute was "The Act of Uniformity;" compelling all the subjects of the kingdom, under penalty of a fine, to attend the service and mode of worship prescribed in the Book of Common Prayer, and forbidding any one to conduct any other service. Several bishops and other ecclesiastics refused the oath, and resigned, or were deprived of their places. Many Catholics, also, fled to foreign lands; and a large number of Protestants who had sought homes abroad during the reign of Mary, and had now returned, refused to obey the law. Believing in a simpler mode of worship than that prescribed, and in a purer life, they were reproachfully called "Puritans." In 1566 they separated from the Established Church, and were called, also, "Dissenters" and "Nonconformists."

The nation attained a higher state of prosperity than it had ever before known in agriculture, commerce, arts, and literature. This reign, often called the "Augustan age of English literature," was illustrated by the great names of Hooker (one of the most eminent divines), Bacon the philosopher, Spenser the author of "The Faery Queen," and Shakspeare.

29. Elizabeth is charged with treachery and cruelty in her treatment of Mary, Queen of Scots, — a woman whose extraordinary beauty and misfortunes have occupied a prominent place in the pages of history. Mary was great-grand-daughter of Henry VII., and next heir to Elizabeth to the throne of England. She had been educated in France as a Catholic, and married, when very young, to the dauphin, afterwards Francis II. She had been persuaded to assume the title of "Queen of England," — a circumstance which proved fatal to her peace. On the death of Francis she returned to Scotland, at the age of eighteen years. At this

period the Reformation, by the zealous labors of John Knox, had made great progress in that country ; and Mary had conceded religious toleration to her subjects. But the Protestant people regarded their Catholic queen with displeasure, and looked to her enemy Elizabeth for support.

Mary married, for her second husband, her cousin Henry Stuart (Lord Darnley), who proved himself to be a worthless person. In less than two years, Darnley was murdered by a band of conspirators ; but there is no proof that Mary was an accomplice in the crime. Soon afterwards she married the Earl of Bothwell, a bold and unscrupulous man, who had been suspected of complicity in Darnley's death. This act aroused the kingdom against her, and civil war ensued. Bothwell fled ; and Mary was taken, confined in the Castle of Loch Leven, and was at length compelled to resign the crown to her infant son, who was proclaimed James VI. ; and her brother, the Earl of Murray, was appointed regent during the young king's minority.

In less than a year Mary, by the assistance of friends, effected her escape from Loch Leven Castle, and fled into England, hoping to secure the favor of her rival, Elizabeth. In this, however, she was disappointed. After being kept as a prisoner more than eighteen years in different places, she was tried on an accusation of having been accessory to a conspiracy against the Queen of England, was condemned, and beheaded in one of the rooms of Fotheringay Castle, in the forty-fifth year of her age.

30. Elizabeth warmly espoused the cause of the Netherlands in their revolt against the authority of Philip II. of Spain ; and her admiral, Sir Francis Drake, had taken some of **The Spanish** the Spanish possessions in South America. To **Armada.** avenge these offences, and to subjugate the leading Protestant power, the Spanish "Invincible Armada," a more formidable fleet than Europe had ever before witnessed, was fitted out for the invasion of England.

This armament consisted of a hundred and fifty ships, three

thousand pieces of cannon, and twenty-seven thousand men. It entered the English Channel in the form of a crescent, extending its two extremities to the distance of seven miles. It was met by the English fleet, consisting of a hundred and eight ships, commanded by those distinguished maritime chiefs, Howard, Drake, Hawkins, Frobisher, and Raleigh. Being gradually weakened, and finally overtaken by a storm, the Armada suffered an entire defeat. Only fifty vessels, with six thousand men, returned to Spain.

31. The age of Elizabeth was fruitful in men of talents ; and she was assisted in her government by eminent statesmen, among whom were Sir Nicholas Bacon, Sir Francis Walsingham, an able statesman and diplomatist, and William Cecil (*Ses'-il*), who was prime-minister of the realm for about forty years, and was the principal director and manager of the government. These men were wholly devoted to the interests of the nation. But her chief personal favorites were unworthy. Of these, in the early part of her reign, the principal was Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester. After his death, Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, a young nobleman of accomplishments, talents, and high spirit, possessed the first place in her affections. The queen and Essex had many quarrels and reconciliations ; but his brilliant career was finally brought to a sad and tragical end.

32. Elizabeth's attention was frequently called to the unsettled state of Scotland and Ireland, both of which had received sympathy and assistance from France and Spain. An Irish chieftain, whom the queen had made Earl of Tyrone, raised the standard of revolt, and for some time defied all attempts to reduce him and his clan to subjection. Finally Essex was intrusted with an army for quelling this rebellion. But his blunders and delays soon brought upon him a reprimand from the queen : whereupon he hastily returned to London, thereby incurring the displeasure of Elizabeth, who immediately curtailed his liberty, and caused his

movements to be closely watched. Failing to regain the queen's confidence, and to secure the continuance of some commercial monopolies which he had formerly enjoyed, Essex finally broke into open rebellion, and attempted to seize the government; but his plans were frustrated (1601), and he was convicted of treason, and beheaded.

33. Elizabeth, who had surprised the nations of Europe by the splendor of her course, was destined to close the evening of her life in gloom and sorrow. Some ascribe the **Elizabeth's** deep depression and mental suffering which she at **last days.** this period endured, to the neglect which she imagined she experienced on account of her age and infirmities, when, to use her own expression, "men would turn their backs on the setting to worship the rising sun;" others, to the revival of her regret for the death of Essex, whom she had given up for his invincible obstinacy, but who, she now discovered, had actually thrown himself upon her clemency, while his enemies had found means to conceal his application. The Countess of Nottingham, now upon her death-bed (according to various historians), sent for the queen, to confess to her that Essex, while under the sentence of death, had desired her to convey to Elizabeth a ring which she had given him with the assurance that the sight of it would at any time recall her tenderness; but that she had neglected to deliver it. The queen, in a frenzy of passion, shook the dying countess, exclaiming, "God may forgive you, but I never can!" From that moment she sank into a deep melancholy, rejected all sustenance, and died (1603) in profound grief, in the forty-fifth year of her reign and the seventieth of her age.

34. Elizabeth was distinguished for her learning, and spoke fluently Greek, Latin, French, and Spanish. She possessed extraordinary talents for government, was great as a public character, and commanded the high respect of her subjects and of foreign nations. Her three **Her character as a sovereign.** leading maxims of policy were to secure the affections of her

subjects, to be frugal of her treasures, and to excite dissensions among her enemies. She manifested less regard for the liberty than for the prosperity of the people. In the former part of her reign, she was comparatively moderate and humble, but afterwards haughty and severe. Both her disposition and her principles were despotic. With regard to religion, she persecuted both Catholics and Puritans ; but, like her father, she had a leaning towards the doctrines of the Romish Church in almost every thing except the doctrine of Papal supremacy.

35. Her private character is less to be admired, being tarnished with insincerity and cruelty, and destitute of the milder and softer virtues of her sex. Her manners were haughty and overbearing, and her conversation grossly profane. Not only was she vain of her beauty (which she only could discover), and delighted with the praise of her charms, even at the age of sixty-five, but was jealous of every female competitor to a degree which the youngest and silliest of her sex might despise. She was also subject to sallies of anger which no sense of dignity could restrain ; and on the whole she furnished a remarkable instance of great moral weaknesses united with high intellectual superiority.

36. The reign of Elizabeth was signalized by the circumnavigation of the globe by Sir Francis Drake (1580), the first Englishman who accomplished that feat ; also by the introduction of potatoes and tobacco from America, pocket-watches from Germany, paper-making, and coaches. In 1563 knives began to be manufactured in London, the first branch of cutlery established in the country. The population of London in that year is said to have been a hundred and sixty-three thousand.

Trinity College (Dublin), Westminster School (London), and the famous school at Rugby, were all established in this reign. Sir Thomas Gresham, a wealthy London trader, erected (1566) a magnificent edifice for the merchants as a place of meeting, and which the queen named the Royal Exchange.

In 1600 a company of London merchants met at the house of one of their number, and subscribed a capital of thirty thousand pounds to purchase a vessel to trade with the East Indies ; and they received a charter soon afterwards from Elizabeth. This was the beginning of that great commercial monopoly, the East-India Company, which ultimately led to British rule in India.

EVENTS AND SOCIETY OF THE TUDOR PERIOD.

37. The reign of the Tudor family in England covers the entire period of the sixteenth century, with a slight overlapping at each end of that century, — or, more exactly **Political** (1485–1603), a period of one hundred and eigh- **events.** teen years. Politically the period was an important one on account of the practical extinction of the feudal system and the checking of the power of the nobles ; the bold assertion and exercise of the prerogative of the sovereign, especially by Henry VIII. ; the enactment of many important laws relating to the Church ; and the progress made by the House of Commons, the people's branch of Parliament, in influencing legislation, and particularly in making its assent necessary in granting supplies of money.

38. But the prominent feature of the century was the revolution in ecclesiastical and religious affairs. From entire devotion to the Roman-Catholic Church, and yielding **The Refor-** a large revenue to its support and treasury, England **mation.** became essentially Protestant, although many people still remained devoted to the Church of Rome. Instead of the Pope, the sovereign was made the ecclesiastical head of the Church ; the Bible was translated into the English language, and, by the aid of the printing-press, began to be widely read by the people.

This change in religious affairs was not brought about without great convulsions, that shook society to its foundations. Passion and violence entered largely into the controversy on both sides, and neither party could claim much credit for the exercise of toleration. The consequences of the political and religious

events of this century affected very materially the history of the century that followed.

39. Trade and commerce flourished during this century ; and so successfully was ship-building carried on, that English ship-
Trade and commerce. carpenters were in great demand in other countries. The spirit of nautical adventure, so prominent at the close of the previous century, continued to stimulate the minds of English merchants and adventurers. Cod-fishing on the Banks of Newfoundland was followed as early as 1536 ; and some time afterward vessels were sent into the northern seas to engage in whale-fishing.

An attempt was made to discover a north-east passage to China, which was unsuccessful ; but it resulted in opening a trade with Russia. Japan and Greenland were visited. Sir Walter Raleigh and others made voyages along the coast of North America, and attempted, though unsuccessfully, to form settlements in the country. Many bold navigators in the time of Elizabeth sailed on marauding expeditions against Spanish commerce, from which they sometimes returned laden with rich booty.

40. The activity of trade stimulated some branches of manufactures. Silk was produced to some extent by foreign weavers ;
Manufactures. great improvement was made in the tanning of leather ; and the manufacture of cloth became a very extensive and profitable industry. In one year in the time of Elizabeth, English merchants exported to the Netherlands, principally to Antwerp, cloth to the value of twelve million dollars. In this reign many London merchants became very rich. Silver shillings were first coined in England in the reign of Henry VII.

41. In the early part of the century, agriculture was not greatly improved. Large tracts of land which had been formerly cultivated were used for pasturage, partly on
Agriculture. account of the scarcity of laborers after the abolition of villenage, and also on account of the great demand for wool.

The suppression of the monasteries occasioned a similar change in the use of much land. Numerous flocks of sheep were pastured by the peasants, and on some of the large estates there were to be found flocks numbering from ten to twenty thousand.

But during the latter half of the century more attention was given to the cultivation of the soil, and a greater variety of products was the result. The introduction of clover made the land capable of supporting more cattle, sheep, and horses; and hops were extensively cultivated. From the Continent were introduced and cultivated salads, cabbages, melons, and artichokes, as were also several delicious fruits, such as apricots, currants, plums, cherries, gooseberries, and pippins from the East and from Southern Europe. Pleasure-gardens were well laid out with terraces, and ornamented with vases and fountains; and there were introduced the gillyflower, the carnation-pink, and several varieties of roses, including the musk-rose.

The farmers' wives performed their full share of labor in the support of the family. They spun and wove wool and flax for the clothing of the household; and an old writer **Labor of women.** says it was the duty of a good housewife "to win- now all manner of corn, to make malt, to wash, and to make hay, shear corn, and in time of need help her husband fill the muck-wain, drive the plough, to load hay, corn, and such other, and to go to market and sell butter and pigs, fowls, or corn."

42. The common people were generally industrious and contented; though begging and robbery were common, and often called for the interposition of the strong arm of the **Condition of the people.** law. Henry VIII. regarded poverty as a kind of crime; and he had severe laws passed to prevent begging, including one against the gypsies, so called because they were supposed to have come originally from Egypt. But in the time of Elizabeth charitable efforts were made to relieve and encourage the worthy poor, although idlers and vagabonds were placed in the stocks or in the house of correction.

43. The Tudor style of architecture, which was a combination

of the Italian and the Gothic, was an improvement on what had preceded it. In point of elegance and convenience it reached its great excellence in the time of Elizabeth. The hall of the noble and the manor-house of the squire were built for comfort and elegance, and not, like the old baronial castles, for defence. These manor-houses and the dwellings of the wealthier classes were well built, and were generally of a style in which two projecting wings, with an intermediate porch, were supposed to represent the letter E, the queen's initial, and hence called the Elizabethan style. In accordance with the Italian custom, the principal apartments were above; and hence the entrance-hall and stairway were finished with much style and decoration.

Furniture was costly, and elaborately carved and inlaid. Chairs were covered with velvet, and beds and bedsteads were rich in material and finish. Glass mirrors were introduced from France, and floor carpets from the East; and the latter soon began to be woven in England. Turkish carpets were used in the time of Edward VI. as table-covers. Ornamental clocks began to be used in the best houses; and one placed in the palace at Hampton Court (1540) is still in existence.

The houses of the farmers and peasants were improved much during the century. In the time of Elizabeth they were usually built of stone or brick, instead of timbers and wattle; and many articles of useful furniture were introduced. Feather-beds had taken the place of the pallet of straw.

44. The style of living among the nobility during the latter part of the sixteenth century was luxurious, and attended with much ceremony and ostentation. In this respect the royal household of Elizabeth was surpassed by none. Her dining-hall resounded with the music of drums and trumpets. Twenty-four courses were served at dinner on gilded dishes, and were brought in by gentlemen and lady attendants in gorgeous costume. As a protection against poisoning, every person who brought in a dish of food was obliged to taste of the same before it was placed upon the royal table.

45. Among the nobility, entertainments and feasting were conducted in a more stately and dignified manner than in the preceding century ; the boisterousness, jesting, and **Feasting** buffoonery of earlier times having been laid aside. **and food.**

On such occasions enormous quantities of food and beer were consumed, and servants were numerous. Lord Burleigh's household was served by a hundred servants. Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester, entertained Queen Elizabeth at Kenilworth Castle for a period of seventeen days at an expense of eighty-five thousand dollars, equivalent to half a million dollars at the present time. On that occasion it is stated that three hundred and sixty-five hogsheads of beer were consumed.

Meat, bread, and fruits were the principal articles of food at feasts, sweets and confections being only occasional luxuries ; and beer and wine were the common drinks. Only the nobility and the rich could afford wheaten bread all the time ; the farmhands and the lower classes using bread of barley and rye, and sometimes mixed and ground with peas, beans, and oats.

Table-cloths and napkins were in common use, and pewter plates had begun to take the place of wooden trenchers. On the tables of the wealthy, there was a great display of plate, which was valued according to its weight, and not for its finish, which was not elaborate. Table-forks were not yet used in England. It is mentioned that guests washed before eating, and that men wore their hats at table.

Thomas Tusser, who flourished in the time of Elizabeth, and was "musician, schoolmaster, husbandman, and poet," wrote a work in verse on "Good Husbandry and Good Housewifery." In this work he gives the following conditions for good cheer : —

" Good bread and good drink, a good fire in the hall ;
Brawn, pudding, and sauce, and good mustard withal ;
Beef, mutton, and pork, shred pies of the best ;
Pig, veal, goose, and capon, and turkey well drest ;
Cheese, apples, and nuts, jolly carols to hear,
As these in the country is counted good cheer."

46. The styles of dress were various, and often extravagant and grotesque, although not so absurd as in the last century.

Dress. The unsightly tall head-dresses for a long time in vogue were discarded; and in their place were worn caps or bonnets of velvet, and felt with feathers, which were often quite picturesque. Broad turn-over collars of fur or velvet were worn by both sexes.

In the time of Henry VIII. men were required to cut their hair short, but the beard and mustache were allowed to grow long. In the reign of Elizabeth, knit stockings of silk or worsted began to take the place of hose made of cloth. Women wore their hair curled and frizzled about the head, and also hanging at length upon the back and shoulders. False hair was common, the color being governed by fashion. At the age of sixty-seven, Queen Elizabeth wore false hair of red color, which was the original hue of her own. Perfumed gloves trimmed with gold and silver and jewelry were much worn; and pins with heads, for fastening garments, became quite common, in place of loops, strings, and other contrivances formerly in use for such purposes. The personal appearance of the ladies was greatly marred by the dark color of their teeth, occasioned by smoking tobacco, which became fashionable after Sir Walter Raleigh introduced that weed into England.

Several laws were passed during the century, forbidding excess and extravagance in dress; but they were little regarded during the reign of Elizabeth, who herself set the people an example of extravagance. It is related that she would never allow a dress to be given away, or otherwise disposed of; and at her death the number in her wardrobe was three thousand.

47. Amusements and festivals of various kinds were participated in by all classes. Costly pageants upon land and upon the water, music and dancing, moralities (a kind of allegorical dialogue), cock-fighting, horse-racing, and bull and bear baiting, were popular forms of recreation.

Christmas was a joyous time for the whole people, and St.

Valentine's Day was the time for love-making. May Day was one of the great national holidays. The young people went to the woods on the morning of that day to obtain the May-pole, which was drawn into the village by many yoke of oxen, with their horns decorated with ribbons and flowers. Around this pole, adorned with gay streamers, the young people danced in holiday attire. The milkmaid's dance, a common pastime, also took place on this day. With huge piles of borrowed silverware upon their heads, they danced from house to house, receiving a small gratuity in money from the occupants.

48. Weddings were occasions of great joy and hilarity among all classes. The village bride was escorted to the church by her young friends, decked with ribbons and rose-mary, and bearing the bride-cup of wine, and followed by maidens carrying cake, and garlands of wheat, and filling the air with music and joyous shouting. Weddings.

49. The printing-press became the means of diffusing much information among the reading classes, and the colleges gave a good education to those who resorted to them. Education. Girls were generally taught at home by private tutors. Henry VIII., Elizabeth, and Lady Jane Grey were all fine classical scholars, and distinguished for their varied attainments. Grammar or secondary schools were established for the middling classes, in which were taught the common and some of the higher branches. But the great mass of the people were deplorably ignorant. It is related that Shakspeare's father, though an alderman, was not able to write his own name.

50. Art made little progress in the time of the Tudors, though portrait-painting was cultivated somewhat. Hans Holbein the younger, a distinguished German portrait and historical painter, spent most of his life in Art. England, and was patronized by Henry VIII., who was the first person that made a collection of paintings in England.

CHAPTER II.

THE STUART FAMILY (PART I.).

(FROM JAMES I. TO THE COMMONWEALTH.)

1603 to 1649, — 46 years.

James I.

Charles I.

ELIZABETH, on the approach of death, nominated for her successor the son of her rival Mary, James VI. of Scotland, who was the rightful heir by descent. He took the title of **James I.** of England (1603), and in him the two crowns were united. He was the first of the Stuarts, — a family whose reign was one continued struggle for power between the monarch and the people, and who were characterized by despotic principles, injudicious conduct, and such a want of gratitude and good faith as to be proverbial for leaving their friends in distress.

2. James had scarcely arrived in England when a conspiracy was discovered for subverting the government, and placing on the throne his cousin, Arabella Stuart. The celebrated Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been distinguished in the preceding reign, was sentenced to death on an accusation of being connected in this plot. He was, however, reprieved, and cast into the Tower, where he remained thirteen years, during which time he wrote his "History of the World." He secured his release from prison by bribery, it was said, to engage in a gold-hunting expedition in Guiana, which proved unsuccessful. During an exploring-tour up the Orinoco, some of his party had a hostile engagement with some Spaniards at

St. Thomas. After his return to England, the Spanish court demanded that he should be punished; and James, reviving the sentence passed upon him fifteen years before, caused him to be barbarously beheaded. He was a valiant soldier and a famous navigator, and as a scholar and writer was one of the first men of the age. He is said to have gained the favor of Elizabeth by an act of gallantry. In passing from her carriage to the palace, the queen was about to step into the mud and water, whereupon Raleigh threw his richly embroidered cloak upon the ground, over which she walked with great complacency.

3. The Catholics had been hopeful of favors from James, as his mother had been a devout Catholic; but in this they were doomed to disappointment. The severity of the **Gunpowder** laws against them was not relaxed. The king espoused the cause of the Established Church, and became intolerant of both Catholics and Dissenters.

Another conspiracy followed, of a more daring nature. This was the famous "Gunpowder Plot," — a design of some fanatical Catholics to blow up the parliament-house, and involve in one common destruction the king, lords, and commons. The leader of the conspiracy was Robert Catesby, a country gentleman of an ancient and wealthy family; and all the members were pledged by oath to the utmost secrecy. They hired a cellar under the parliament-house, ostensibly for business purposes, into which they conveyed thirty-six barrels of gunpowder, and covered it with fagots. Guy Fawkes, a Yorkshireman who had done military service in the Netherlands, was hired as keeper of the cellar, and to carry the plot into execution.

Lord Mounteagle, a Catholic member of Parliament, received an anonymous letter urging him to absent himself from the opening session on the 5th of November (1605). This led to an investigation and to placing a watch upon the premises. During the night of the 4th, as Fawkes opened the door of the cellar, he was seized by soldiers, and secured. Slow-matches

for firing the magazine were found in his pocket, and behind the door was a dark-lantern burning. This lantern is still preserved in the Bodleian Library at Oxford. Upon the arrest of Fawkes, the conspirators fled into the country, whither they were pursued; and some of them were shot, while others were arrested, and, with Fawkes, were tried, convicted, and executed. Before his execution, Fawkes was put to the torture; and, although he boldly avowed his purpose, he made no confession concerning his confederates. The exposure of this plot led to the enactment of still severer laws against the Catholics.

4. Soon after James's accession, a convention of divines was held for the discussion of religious subjects, at which he was one of the principal speakers; and he declared, **Dissenters.** that, if the dissenters did not "conform," he would "harry them out of the land," — a threat afterwards not wholly unaccomplished. He visited Scotland for the purpose of introducing the Established Church there, but was not favorably received. His countrymen even accused him of being a traitor to the religion in which he was educated, and to the promises he made while King of Scotland.

5. The version of the Bible known as King James's Version, **The Common English Bible.** the one now in use by Protestants, was made during the reign of James (1611) by a large committee of divines and scholars appointed by the king for that purpose.

6. The spirit of commercial enterprise, so active in the time of Elizabeth, gave rise in this reign to extensive schemes of **American Colonies.** colonization, one of which resulted in planting a colony on James River in Virginia, the oldest English town in the United States, and which, in honor of the king, was called Jamestown.

During the reign of Mary, the Puritans first made their **The Puritans.** appearance; and in the time of Elizabeth they became, in a considerable degree, conspicuous. They were strenuous advocates for freedom in the state, and a

more thorough reformation in religion. A great majority of the Puritans remained in the Established Church, though protesting against some of its doctrines and practices. At the accession of James they cherished high hopes that their views would meet with more favor than during the reign of the late queen, inasmuch as he had been educated in Presbyterianism. But, of all persons, they were the most disappointed. So great was their dissatisfaction, that some of them sought refuge from their restraints and persecutions in Holland. Having withdrawn from the Established Church, they were called "Separatists," or "Independents," and afterwards, from their wanderings, were known as the "Pilgrims." After a residence of several years in Holland, a company of them left Delfthaven (1620), and, being joined by friends from England, sailed across the ocean to the wilderness of America, and began at Plymouth the first settlement in New England.

7. It was the characteristic weakness of James to attach himself to worthless favorites: such were Carr, Earl of Somerset, and Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, — men on whom Bad associates. he bestowed his favors with the utmost prodigality, though they were of profligate character; odious to the people, and were possessed of no merit, except external beauty and superficial accomplishments.

8. But some of the king's counsellors were men of ability and distinction. His first prime-minister was Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, who had held the Counsellors. same office during the latter part of Elizabeth's reign, and who was the son of Lord Burleigh. He was an able statesman and an adroit negotiator, but is censured for promoting or permitting the ruin of his rivals, — Raleigh and Essex. Francis Bacon was attorney-general, keeper of the seals, and lord high chancellor; but he was accused and convicted of bribery, fined forty thousand pounds, and imprisoned for a time in the Tower. He was a man of great ability, of the highest distinction as a scholar and an author, and inaugurated a system of philosophy

that laid the foundation of modern science ; but his greatness was sadly shaded by his moral weakness, if not by corruption. Pope gave him the stinging characteristic of "The wisest, brightest, and meanest of mankind."

9. The leading characteristic of James was his love of arbitrary power. The divine right of kings to govern their subjects was his favorite topic in conversation and in his speeches to Parliament. He wrote a book in defence of this doctrine, and maintained that sovereigns should govern according to their own will, and that the duty of subjects is obedience. Some of the bishops and nobility supported him in these views ; but the House of Commons gave no countenance to such doctrines, and it was the misfortune of the king to be often at variance with his Parliaments. His habits led to frequent calls for money ; but the Commons seldom made a grant until some grievance complained of was redressed. To replenish his empty treasury, he created the title of baronet, an hereditary dignity between a baron and a knight, and sold two hundred of them for a thousand pounds each.

10. The increase of commerce and the consequent influx of wealth, the diffusion of information, the disappointed hopes and the privations of the Puritans (who had become numerous), and the controversies in which they were engaged, all conspired to diffuse widely the spirit of liberty. The current of public opinion was now strongly turned to an extension of the rights of the people and to a retrenchment of the power of the sovereign ; and it was during this reign that the seeds were sown of that spirit of resistance to despotic power, on the part of the people, which in the next produced a subversion of the monarchy.

11. James died of ague in March, 1625. While King of Scotland, he had married Ann of Denmark. Of several children, but two survived him, — Elizabeth, who married Count Palatine, — a German prince, and for a short time King of Bohemia, — and Charles, the Prince of Wales, who succeeded his father upon the throne.

12. In person James was tall and exceedingly awkward ; and, although very fond of the chase, he was a very bad rider. His costume is described as consisting of a doublet, **Person and** or short jacket, quilted to avoid assassination ; **character.** breeches in large plaits, and stuffed ; long tight-fitting silk hose ; shoes with rosettes ; and a high-peaked hat with a feather.

His subjects had little respect for his personal character ; for his morals were far from being pure, drunkenness being one of his besetting sins. The sight of a naked sword almost caused him to shudder, and he lived in constant fear of witches. He possessed a good deal of learning, but more pedantry, and was the author of several books, including one on "The Divine Right of Kings," a "Counterblast to Tobacco," one on "Demonology," and a "Book of Sports," in which he recommends wrestling, archery, and other games, to be practised on Sunday, "after evening prayers." The religious public of all classes condemned this book.

The king's greatest weakness was his excessive fondness for flattery, which was dealt out to him with an unsparing hand by his bishops and parasites, who styled him the "British Solomon ;" but the Duke of Sully called him "The wisest fool in Europe." But the best part of his character was his pacific disposition ; and his reign, which lasted twenty-two years, though ignoble to himself, was in many respects happy to his people, who were enriched by peace and commerce.

13. During this reign (1614) logarithms were invented by Napier, a Scotchman ; copper halfpence and farthings were first coined ; and Harvey made his famous discovery **Events and** (1619) of the circulation of the blood. The last **persons.** burnings for heresy were in 1611 ; but the fagots were often lighted afterwards for the punishment of supposed witches. Among the celebrities of the age were Coke, an eminent judge and jurist ; Inigo Jones, the architect of Whitehall Palace ; and four distinguished poets and dramatists, — Ben Jonson, Beaumont and Fletcher (who wrote plays together), and Shakspeare,

who revolutionized the national drama of England, and who was the greatest writer of this class of his own or of any age. He died in his native place, Stratford-on-Avon, in 1616, and was buried within the chancel of the village church, where the inscription written by the poet's own hand still meets the eyes of pilgrims to that shrine of genius : —

“Good frend for Jesus sake forbear
To digg the dust enclosed heare :
Blest be ye man yt spares thes stones,
And curst be he yt moves my bones.”

14. Charles I. ascended the throne (1625) in his twenty-fifth year, under favorable circumstances. His title was undisputed, and the kingdom was in a flourishing condition. But within the last fifty years public opinion in the nation had undergone a great change ; and many of his subjects were extremely jealous of their civil and religious liberties, and would no longer be governed by precedents which had their origin in times of ignorance and slavery. He soon gave proof that he inherited the same arbitrary principles with his father ; and the same worthless favorite, Buckingham, retained his influence and authority. Soon after his accession, Charles married Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France.

15. In the latter part of the reign of James, Charles, accompanied by Buckingham, had visited the court of Madrid in order to solicit the hand of the infanta in marriage. The negotiation, however, failed through the misconduct of Buckingham ; and England was involved in a war with Spain. Soon after Charles ascended the throne, he was offended with the Parliament for refusing to grant him sufficient supplies in carrying on this war, and for resisting his arbitrary designs ; and, having adopted the resolution to rule without their aid, he proceeded to levy money in various ways, independent of their authority. One of these methods was by a tax on merchandise, called “tonnage and poundage ;”

State of the
kingdom.

Arbitrary
measures of
the king.

and another by a tax called "ship-money." The money raised by the latter was now levied not only on seaport towns, but over the whole kingdom; and Charles ^{Ship-money.} claimed the right to command his subjects, without an act of Parliament, to provide and furnish ships, together with men, victuals, and ammunition, in such numbers and at such time as he should think proper, — a claim which struck at the vital principle of a free government. This assessment of ship-money is the famous tax which first roused the whole nation at length to fix and determine, after a long continuance of an unsettled constitution, the bounds of their own freedom and the king's prerogative.

16. A noble stand was made against the payment of this imposition by John Hampden, a man who, on account of his high character for talents, integrity, and patriotism, pos- ^{John} sessed the greatest influence in parliament and in ^{Hampden.} the nation. But although the venal judges decided the cause against him, yet he obtained the end for which he sacrificed his quiet and his safety. The people, believing that the decision was unjust, were roused from their lethargy, and became fully sensible of the danger to which their liberties were exposed.

17. An important measure passed by the Commons early in the reign of Charles was called the "Petition of Rights," — a law which the king was compelled to sign, securing ^{Petition of} the observance of certain rights guaranteed by ^{Rights.} Magna Charta, but which Charles had often disregarded. The principal grievances complained of were martial law, and the quartering of soldiers in private houses, forced loans and taxes without consent of Parliament, and arbitrary imprisonments. An important provision in Magna Charta provided that "no penalty shall be laid on any man but by the judgment of his peers, and according to law." This Petition of Rights has been called the "Second Great Charter" of the people of England.

18. The Duke of Buckingham having been assassinated (1628) by Felton, an Irish fanatic, Thomas Wentworth, Earl

of Strafford, the most able and devoted champion of the claims of the crown, and the most formidable enemy of the liberties of the people, became the chief counsellor of the king; and William Laud, afterwards Archbishop of Canterbury, a thorough hater of the Puritans, had the principal influence in ecclesiastical affairs.

The current of the public sentiment was now running strongly towards Puritanism, in favor of a simpler form of worship. But Laud, so far from countenancing this tendency, had overloaded the church with new ceremonies, which were displeasing to the people, and which he enforced with the most intolerant zeal.

Not satisfied with attempting to enforce conformity in England, the king undertook to establish episcopacy in Scotland also, and to impose the use of the English liturgy upon the national church. This measure excited a strong sensation among all ranks, from the peer to the peasant: even the women were not backward in manifesting opposition. In one of the churches of Edinburgh, on the day when the introduction of the liturgy was first attempted, no sooner had the service begun than an old woman, impelled by sudden indignation, started up, and, exclaiming aloud against the innovation, threw the stool on which she had been sitting at the preacher's head. The assembly was instantly in confusion, nor could the minister finish the service. The people from without burst open the doors, and broke the windows; and a scene of great disorder brought the services to an end. The prelates were equally unsuccessful in most instances, throughout Scotland, in enforcing the liturgy. The National Covenant, which was first framed at the Reformation, and which renounced Episcopacy as well as Roman Catholicism, was renewed, and subscribed by all ranks.

19. After eleven years' intermission, the king found it necessary in 1640 to convoke a parliament; but the House of Commons, instead of listening to his demands for supplies, began with presenting the public grievances

under three heads, — those of the broken privileges of Parliament, of illegal taxes, and of violence done to the cause of religion. Charles, perceiving he had nothing favorable to hope from their deliberations, soon dissolved the Assembly. By another parliament not long afterwards assembled, which continued twenty years, and was called the “Long Parliament,” Strafford and Laud were sent to the Tower on several charges of endeavoring to subvert the constitution, and to introduce arbitrary power. Strafford was brought to trial on a charge of treason, and was condemned and beheaded; and five years afterwards Laud suffered the same fate.

20. Charles had, in 1629, violated the privileges of Parliament by causing nine members to be imprisoned for the part which they had taken in debate. But he was now **Bold measures of the king.** betrayed into a still greater indiscretion, which contributed much towards kindling the flame of civil war. This was the impeachment of Lord Kimbolton and five distinguished commoners, — Pym, Hampden, Hollis, Hazlerig, and Strode, — and his going himself to the House to seize them, leaving two hundred armed men at the door. Having entered the House, he ordered the speaker, Lenthall, to point them out. “Sir,” answered the speaker, falling on his knees, “I have neither eyes to see, nor tongue to speak, in this place, but as the House is pleased to direct me, whose servant I am; and I humbly ask pardon that I cannot give any other answer to what your Majesty is pleased to demand of me.” The king withdrew without effecting his object, amidst low but distinct murmurs of “Privilege; privilege!” This ill-advised and abortive attempt, which was condemned both by his friends and enemies, completed the degradation of the unfortunate monarch. He afterwards apologized to Parliament for this conduct. But the day of reconciliation was past: he had lost the confidence of that body; and they were now prepared, not only to confine his power within legal bounds, but to strip him of his constitutional authority.

21. Both parties resolved to stake the issue of the contest on the sword, and the standard of civil war was now (1642) erected.

Civil war
and its
parties.

The cause of the king was supported by three-fourths of the nobility and superior gentry, by the bishops, and advocates of episcopacy, and by the Catholics; that of the Parliament, by the yeomanry of the country, the merchants and tradesmen in the towns, by the Puritans, or opponents of episcopacy, comprising the Presbyterians, Independents, and other dissenters. The supporters of the king

were styled "Cavaliers;" those of the Parliament, "Round-heads," — an appellation given to them by their adversaries because many of them cropped their hair short.



A CAVALIER.

22. A religious spirit, unfortunately tinged with fanaticism, extravagance, and party feeling, was at this period widely diffused throughout Great Britain; and it formed a prominent characteristic of most of the leaders in Parliament, and also of those who took up arms in defence of their liberties. The charge of

license and excess fell chiefly on the royalists, a great part of whom were men of pleasure, disposed to deride the sanctity and austere morality of their opponents. "All the sober men that I was acquainted with, who were against the Parliament," says the celebrated Richard Baxter, "used to say, 'The king had the better cause, but the Parliament had the better men.'"

23. England had been comparatively but little engaged in war since the accession of Henry VII., and it had but few men of military experience. The chief commanders in the royal

army, besides the king, were the Earl of Lindsey, Prince Rupert (nephew of Charles, and son of the King of Bohemia), and Sir Jacob Astley ; and in the parliamentary army the Earl of Essex (son of Essex, the favorite of Elizabeth) had the chief command at first, then Lord Fairfax, and afterwards Oliver Cromwell (a cousin of John Hampden).

Leaders and battles.

24. There were but few battles in the civil war that could be called great ; but there was much skirmishing, and many marauding and plundering expeditions, as is common in wars of this kind. The first engagement of importance was at Edgehill (October, 1642), at which the king was present in person ; his troops being commanded by Rupert, while Essex was in charge of the parliamentary forces. Several thousand were slain ; but the battle was not decisive, although the royalists seemed rather to have gained the advantage. Charles had coined his plate into money to raise the troops employed on this occasion. Soon after the battle, he retired to Oxford, which was strongly fortified, and made his headquarters during the war. Here he occasionally held parliaments of such members as were friendly to his cause. In some of these parliaments he had at times a majority of the peers of the realm ; but the greater number of the commoners remained at Westminster.

Edgehill.



A ROUNDHEAD.

25. Attempted negotiations for peace failed. In the winter of 1643 the queen returned from the Continent with four ships, containing troops which she had raised with funds obtained by selling the crown jewels in Holland.

**Foreign aid.
Hampden.**

In the spring Essex took Reading ; and at a skirmish in

Chalgrove Field, near Oxford, in June, John Hampden was killed. He was an able advocate of human rights and a staunch friend of the people. Before the war, he and Cromwell had decided to emigrate to America ; but the vessel in which they were to sail was detained by order of the king's Council.

26. In the summer, Bristol and the west surrendered to Rupert, and in the north the royalists more than held their own.

Newbury. Gloucester was besieged by the king, but was soon abandoned ; and the two armies met at Newbury (in September), where a fiercely contested battle lasted an entire day, and closed at night with no decisive results, although the royalists claimed it as a victory. Lord Falkland, a warm friend and secretary of state of the king, was slain. In former years he had belonged to the opposite party ; but believing that the king was right, and being desirous of peace, he espoused his sovereign's cause.

27. The parliamentary party now sought an alliance with Scotland, for which purpose Sir Henry Vane was sent to Edinburgh. Vane had resided in America, and had been **Alliance with the Scots.** governor of Massachusetts Bay Colony, and a representative in the General Court from Boston.

The Scots were Presbyterians, with an intense dislike for the Papacy ; but, in matters of religious liberty and toleration, they were not as liberal as the Independents, of whom Vane, Cromwell, and many of their associates, were members.

As a condition of alliance, the Scots required the acceptance of their National Covenant, by which they hoped to introduce their form of religion into England. After much **Solemn league and covenant.** discussion, that instrument was modified, named the Solemn League and Covenant, and adopted by both parties. It required its supporters to unite for mutual defence, and for the extirpation of popery and prelacy, profaneness, superstition, and heresy ; also to maintain the king's authority, and the rights and privileges of Parliament. This covenant was subscribed to by more than two hundred members of the

Parliament at Westminster, and ordered to be signed by all under their authority. This virtually made Presbyterianism, for the time being, the national religion of the realm.

28. Two or three years previous to these events, Charles had sent troops to Ireland to suppress a serious insurrection that had arisen there. These troops he now recalled **Re-enforce-** for his own assistance ; but, soon after their arrival **ments.** in Wales, they were entirely defeated by Fairfax.

As one of the fruits of the recent alliance, an army of forty thousand Scots, under Earl Leven, joined Fairfax in January, 1644. In April the queen left Oxford for Exeter as a means of safety, afterwards crossed over to France, and never saw her husband again.

29. Soon after midsummer (July 2) the opposing forces met at Marston Moor, a broad open plain a few miles from the old historic city of York, where the royalists, under **Marston** Rupert and the Marquis of Newcastle, met with a **Moor.** most signal defeat. Fairfax received efficient and timely aid from Oliver Cromwell, in command of a company of picked horsemen, whom he named *Ironsides*. The field was strewn with more than four thousand of the slain ; and Rupert left in the hands of the victors fifteen hundred prisoners, all his cannon, and more than a hundred banners. Newcastle, against whose advice Rupert rashly brought on the engagement, abandoned the cause, and went to France.

This battle left the authority of Parliament supreme in the north ; although the Earl of Montrose, who had espoused the cause of Charles in Scotland, gained some victories over the Covenanters.

30. In the west and south Essex met with some reverses, and nearly another year was spent in skirmishing movements and in the adjustment of difficulties that had arisen **The army.** between different factions in Parliament. The army was remodelled, and recruited by the addition of many religious enthusiasts, with Sir Thomas Fairfax as general-in-chief.

Members of Parliament were made ineligible to office in the army; but, in spite of this rule, Cromwell was appointed lieutenant-general.

31. In June, 1645, the last great battle of the war was fought at Naseby, at which the king was present in person. His army was totally routed, with a heavy loss in killed and prisoners; and all his artillery, ammunition, and arms were left upon the field. The parliamentary party had a thousand killed. This victory was really due to the rashness of Rupert and the superior generalship of Cromwell.

The king's cabinet was taken with his baggage; and in it were found letters which proved that there was no sincerity in any of his efforts for reconciliation with Parliament, and that some of his proposals to secure assistance for his restoration were highly dishonorable. This circumstance was as disastrous to his cause as any battle he had lost.

Rupert soon after surrendered Bristol, and, in disgrace with the king, left the country. The war was now virtually at an end; although Montrose continued his operations for a time in Scotland, and some of the king's garrisons held out several months longer.

32. Upon his defeat at Naseby, Charles retired to Oxford; and, after several months of fruitless attempts to negotiate a peace with Parliament, he escaped to the army of the Scots at Newark, and thence to Newcastle, where he received protection, but was kept a prisoner for nine months.

The king had hoped that the Scots would replace him upon his throne; but the conditions they proposed were blindly rejected by him, and after much negotiation he was surrendered to parliamentary commissioners upon the payment of four hundred thousand pounds. The transportation of this sum in silver northward from London required thirty-six carts guarded by an escort of infantry, and seventeen days' time for the journey.

33. For nearly two years the king was a prisoner of Parliament, during which time all attempts at reconciliation with his enemies were fruitless. He was confined first at Charles a Holmby House, one of his own residences, not far prisoner. from Naseby; then at Hampton Court, whence he escaped, and fled to the Isle of Wight, where he was kept in the castle, and from which he unsuccessfully attempted to escape; next at Hurst Castle on the mainland; and finally at Windsor, whence he was taken (Jan. 19, 1649) to St. James Palace in London.

On the following day he was brought into Westminster Hall, to be tried on a charge of treason before a High Court of Justice composed of one hundred and thirty-five Trial and persons, of which John Bradshaw was president. execution. This court had been appointed, without the consent of the peers, by a minority of the House of Commons, after having expelled some of their colleagues, and being under the influence of the parliamentary army. Charles denied the authority of the court: but the trial proceeded; and he was convicted, and received the sentence that "the Court, being satisfied that Charles Stuart is guilty of the crimes of which he has been charged, do adjudge him — as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and public enemy to the good people of the nation — to be put to death by severing his head from his body."

34. Charles was no longer the man he had been before the civil war. Affliction had chastened his mind. He had sought and found relief in the consolations of religion, Submission and his conduct during his trial exalted his char- and death. acter even in the estimation of his enemies. He forgave those who were the cause of his death; and (Jan. 20) upon a scaffold in front of Whitehall Palace, he submitted to his fate with fortitude and composure. Having laid his head on the block, one of the masked executioners severed it from his body at a blow: the other, holding it up, exclaimed, "Behold the head of a traitor!" while the sobs and lamentations of the spectators were mingled with the acclamations of the soldiery.

35. Such was the end of Charles I., — an awful lesson to kings to watch the growth of public opinion, and to moderate their pretensions in conformity with the reasonable desires of their subjects. His execution, however, was contrary to the general feelings of the nation, and was the deed of comparatively a few men, actuated by ambition or the madness of the times. The event was new in the experience of Englishmen, for never before had they seen their sovereign die at the hands of the public executioner. Even of the commissioners appointed to sit in judgment on him, only about half could be induced to attend his trial. But the manner of his death has tended to exalt his posthumous reputation : for his friends have styled him the “Royal Martyr ;” and even many of his enemies have been disposed to look forgivingly upon his misdeeds, which brought him to the scaffold.

36. It was the misfortune of Charles to inherit despotic principles from his ancestors, to be educated in a servile and profligate court, and to be surrounded by wretched counsellors. He was one of the last men to learn the important lesson, which princes in all ages have been slow to learn, that the influence of authority must ultimately bend to the influence of opinion. But his greatest defect, as well as the principal cause of his ruin, was the system of duplicity and insincerity upon which he acted in his public character. Such was his want of fidelity in his engagements, that the Parliament could never confide in his promises. But, weak and reprehensible as he was as a king, he was by no means destitute of abilities. He was possessed of considerable learning, and good talents as a speaker and writer, and in his private character was exemplary. In his manners he is represented as cold, stiff, and formal ; and with respect to religion, “he was,” says Bishop Burnet, “much inclined to a middle way between Protestants and Papists.”

37. The proceedings of Charles were at direct variance with every principle of civil and religious liberty ; and, had they been

acquiesced in on the part of the people, England might now have been a despotism. Mr. Hume, the great **Not a friend** apologist for the Stuart family, acknowledges the **of liberty.** services of the Puritans, "by whom alone," according to him, "the precious spark of liberty had been kindled and was preserved, and to whom the English owe the whole freedom of their constitution."

38. The intention of those who first resisted the despotic and intolerant measures of the king and his court was doubtless upright and patriotic. Yet it must be acknowledged **His oppo-** that those who opposed the intolerance of the king **nents.** and of Laud, had themselves no consistent principles of religious liberty. In the progress of the contest, party spirit and fanaticism were called into powerful operation; and the leaders of the popular party in many cases acted on the principle that the end sanctifies the means, and appeared to think themselves absolved from all obligations of honor and honesty. Right and justice were outraged by those who professed to have drawn the sword in their defence. But such inconsistency is characteristic of revolutions.

39. Charles left six children, of whom two, Charles and James, became kings of England; and Mary, who married William II., Prince of Orange, became the mother **His family.** of William III. of England. Henrietta Maria married Philip, Duke of Orléans, a brother of Louis XIV. of France.

40. Vandyke, a Flemish artist, and probably the most celebrated portrait-painter of modern times except Titian, resided in London during this reign, and was patronized by **Artists.** Charles; and it was through him that Charles obtained the celebrated Cartoons of Raphael, representing Scripture scenes, and now in South Kensington Museum, London. Rubens, another eminent Flemish painter, came to the court of Charles as an ambassador from Spain. The ceilings of the Whitehall Palace banqueting-hall (still in existence) are decorated with pictures on canvas by him, painted abroad.

41. In 1643 the famous Westminster Assembly of Divines, mostly Presbyterians, met in London, and continued its sessions **Westminster** about six years. This body prepared a directory **Assembly.** for public worship, a confession of faith, and two catechisms, all of which, with slight modifications, are still the standards of the Presbyterian Church. The Shorter Catechism was introduced into New England, and became a part of the New-England Primer, which was used for primary instruction in Puritan families.

42. Roger Williams, a Puritan reformer, emigrated from **Williams.** England to America in 1631, where he became conspicuous in the early history of Massachusetts, and the founder of the Colony of Rhode Island.

43. In 1635 the postmaster-general was ordered to establish **Posts.** "a running post between London and Edinburgh (a distance of over two hundred miles), to go night and day, and come back in six days;" and in 1644 a weekly conveyance of letters was ordered into all parts of the nation.

CHAPTER III.

THE COMMONWEALTH, OR PROTECTORATE.

1649 to 1660, — 11 years.

Oliver Cromwell.

WITHIN a few hours after the execution of Charles I., a sergent-at-arms appeared in the streets of London, and proclaimed that the House of Commons had voted that whoever should proclaim the Prince of Wales, or any other one, king or chief magistrate of England, without the consent of Parliament, should be deemed a traitor. Not long afterwards the statue of the late king in the Exchange was thrown down ; and on its pedestal was inscribed, “Exit tyrannus, regum ultimus” (“The tyrant is gone, the last of the kings”).

The Commons voted to abolish the office of King and the House of Lords as “unnecessary, burdensome, and dangerous to the liberty, safety, and public interests of the people,” and caused proclamation to be made that the supreme authority of the nation resided in the representatives of the people. A republican form of government was established, and a Council of State appointed as the executive branch of the government. Of this council, John Bradshaw was president, and John Milton the poet, secretary. Only a few royalists (less than a half-dozen) were executed, and in matters of religion considerable toleration was allowed.

2. After the execution of Laud, episcopacy had been abol-

ished, and Presbyterianism substituted in its stead. But the Presbyterian interest soon began to decline, and the Independents gained the ascendancy; and the power which the Parliament had wrested from the king was at length, by the management of Cromwell, transferred to the army. Before the trial of Charles, measures had been taken to exclude the Presbyterians from Parliament; and that part of the House which remained, distinguished by the ridiculous name of the "Rump," was composed of Independents, under the influence of Cromwell. In this manner the Presbyterians, who had overturned the church and the throne, fell victims to the military power which they had used as the instrument for accomplishing their designs.

3. The attention of the new government was early called to the condition of Ireland, where civil war was imminent or was already prevailing. The greater part of the people were royalists, and generally Catholics also. Through the Marquis of Ormond, their leader, they had invited the late king's son, Prince Charles, — then on the Continent, — to come to Ireland, and be proclaimed king. They were in possession of all the principal places of the island, except Dublin and Derry; and Prince Rupert was hovering about St. George's Channel with a large fleet.

4. In this emergency Cromwell was appointed general-in-chief and lord-lieutenant; and with his son-in-law Ireton, and nine thousand troops, he set out for Ireland. While he tarried briefly at Bristol, a portion of the army preceded him, and relieved Dublin, which had been besieged by Ormond. Cromwell's arrival caused much rejoicing among his friends and adherents, who were in constant fear and alarm, owing to the disturbed state of the country, which, unhappily, had existed for several years. Strong party feeling had existed on all sides since the insurrection in Ulster in 1641, which grew out of unsuccessful attempts to redress civil wrongs, and to remove religious disabilities.

Cromwell's first movement was against Drogheda, which had a garrison of two thousand men; and, when a surrender was refused, they were summarily put to the sword. Places taken. Cromwell himself reported that only a few escaped. Dundalk and Wexford shared a similar fate; and in this way for ten months he went through the land. Where the terror of his name had not gone before him to induce submission, the sword did its quick work with terrible effect. Those who thought such warfare revengeful were told by Cromwell that the hand of Providence was in this visitation, and that "this present bitterness would save the effusion of blood" in future.

During this campaign he destroyed or greatly damaged many of the fine old castles whose ivy-covered ruins form such a picturesque feature in the scenery of Ireland. Castles. The commander-in-chief was soon recalled to repress hostile movements in Scotland.

5. The Parliament of Scotland took no part in the trial of the late king, but soon afterwards began to negotiate with his son to be proclaimed as Charles II. Montrose, the stanch royalist, and hater of the Covenanters, had left Scotland for the Continent after the king was taken prisoner; and now young Charles, in the Netherlands, commissioned him to raise troops, and re-enter Scotland. He did so, but was soon taken prisoner, and executed. Charles entered Scotland, after being compelled to sign the Covenant, and, when going into Aberdeen, saw the limbs of Montrose fastened upon the gateway above his head. Prince Charles and the Scots.

6. Cromwell was appointed captain-general of the army for the campaign in Scotland, and immediately marched towards Edinburgh. In September, 1650, he was at Dunbar, with twelve thousand men, surrounded by twenty-seven thousand Scots under Lesley, who attacked him vigorously; but Cromwell's troops fought with such skill and desperation, that the Scots were completely routed, leaving three thousand dead upon the field, and losing ten thousand. Cromwell. Dunbar.

prisoners, some of whom were sent to New England, and sold into penal servitude. Cromwell entered Edinburgh, and laid siege to the great Castle, which surrendered after a stout resistance of three months.

7. Charles was crowned at Scone in January, 1651, and, after a varied campaign of several months, marched southward into England with an army of eleven thousand men.

Worcester.

Cromwell followed with ten thousand troops, and overtook him at Worcester, on the anniversary of the battle of Dunbar, gave him battle, and completely routed him. Charles's army were nearly all killed or taken prisoners. Cromwell called this victory his crowning mercy, and returned in triumph to London. Gen. Monk was afterwards made commander of the forces in Scotland, and brought the country into a state of subjection to the government.

8. Young Charles escaped with difficulty. He assumed the disguise of a peasant, journeying in the least-frequented roads, travelling only in the night, and passing the day in
Charles II. a fugitive. obscure cottages, where he was unknown, and where his food was generally a little coarse bread and milk. On one occasion he sought safety by concealing himself for a day in the top of a large oak. In that precarious situation he saw and heard his pursuers, as they passed by, talking of him, and expressing a wish that they might discover the place of his concealment. After two months of romantic adventure, he found an opportunity of escaping to France.

9. The republican Parliament passed (1651) the famous Navigation Act, which, by prohibiting the importation of all
War with Holland. foreign merchandise, except in English bottoms or in those of the country producing the commodities, tended greatly to promote the naval superiority of Great Britain. This act, the object of which was to wrest the carrying-trade of Europe from the Dutch, was the cause of a war between England and Holland, which was declared by Parliament in 1652. The contest was carried on by sea, by Admirals Van

Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt, on the part of the Dutch, and by Admiral Blake of the English fleet. Van Tromp, with a fleet of eighty vessels and ten fire-ships, attacked the English fleet of thirty-seven ships in the Downs **Naval battles.** (in November), and gained a victory after a day of hard fighting. Van Tromp was so elated with his success, that he sailed through the Channel and into the Thames, carrying a broom at masthead; thus indicating his determination to sweep the English fleet from the ocean.

During the winter another engagement took place, lasting three days, in which Blake was victorious, losing only one vessel, and sinking eleven of the enemy's ships. The war was finally terminated triumphantly for the English, by a hard-fought battle, in July, in which Van Tromp was killed, and thirty of his ships destroyed, while the English lost but two vessels.

10. The Parliament, which had been in session twelve years, known by the name of the "Long Parliament," had lost the confidence of the people. It had been subservient to the views of Cromwell; but, having at length become jealous of him, it formed the design of **Cromwell and Long Parliament.** reducing the army, intending by that means to diminish his power. Cromwell perceiving their object, and being secure of the attachment of the army, resolved on seizing the sovereign power. While sitting in a council of officers, on being informed of an unfavourable reply of Parliament to a petition which they had presented, he rose up on a sudden with an appearance of fury, and, turning to Major-Gen. Vernon, cried out that he was compelled to do a thing which made the very hairs of his head stand on end. Taking with him three hundred soldiers to the door, he speedily entered the House, with marks of violent indignation in his countenance; and, after listening a while to the debates, he started up, and began to load the Parliament with reproaches. Then, stamping upon the floor, he gave a signal for his soldiers to enter, and, addressing himself to the members, "For shame!" said he. "Get you gone! Give

place to honest men ! I tell you you are no longer a parliament : the Lord has done with you ! ” Having turned out all the members, he ordered the doors to be locked, and, putting the keys in his pocket, returned to the palace.

11. In this manner Cromwell seized the reins of government. But he was willing to give his subjects a parliament, not, indeed, elected in the usual form, but modelled on principles entirely new. The ministers took the sense of the “ Congregational churches ” in the several counties, and returns were made containing the names of such persons as were deemed qualified for this high trust. Out of these the council, in the presence of Cromwell, selected a hundred and sixty-three representatives, to each of whom a writ of summons was sent, requiring his attendance ; and on the appointed day a hundred and twenty of them presented themselves in the council-chamber at Whitehall. This body, composed of men who were deeply imbued with the fanaticism of the times, is known by the name of the “ Little Parliament ; ” and is also often called “ Barebone’s Parliament,” from a leading member, a leather-dresser, whose name, given according to the taste of the age, was Praise-God Barebone. The Little Parliament assembled on the 4th of July, 1653, and was dissolved in the following December. At the time of its dissolution a new constitution was published, and Cromwell assumed the title and office of Protector, having now obtained the great object of his ambition, — the station and authority, though not the title, of king. He was assisted by a council of twenty-one members ; and, instead of the title of Majesty, he received that of Highness. He afterwards aspired to the title of king, which was at length tendered to him, yet under such circumstances of opposition and danger that he thought proper to decline it.

12. The government which he had usurped he administered with unrivalled energy and ability, and he was the most able and powerful potentate of his time in Europe. Abroad, his fleets and armies were victorious ; and the Island of Jamaica,

and the strong town of Dunkirk in the north-eastern part of France, were taken from the Spaniards. At home he defeated and punished the conspiracies formed against him, and caused justice to be ably and impartially administered by upright and learned judges. He also made himself to be respected and dreaded by the neighboring nations, and his friendship to be sought by every foreign power ; and among all foreign nations the rights of the citizens of the Commonwealth were as properly respected as under the reign of any other sovereign. The splendor of Cromwell's character and exploits rendered the short period of the protectorate one of the most brilliant in English history.

Character of
his admin-
istration.

But, notwithstanding all his efforts, his enemies were numerous among both the royalists and republicans. His domestic afflictions were also many and severe. A son was killed in battle ; and a favorite married daughter died of a lingering disease ; and another married daughter was so extreme in her ideas of liberty, that she did not wish to see any one person at the head of the government, not even her own father. He passed the last part of his life in constant fear of assassination, wore armor under his clothes, kept pistols in his pocket, and never slept more than three nights in the same chamber. At last, after having usurped the government nine years, he died of a tertian ague (1658), in the sixtieth year of his age.

Affliction
and death.

13. Cromwell was regarded by many as one of the most extraordinary men that England has produced ; and, till the rise of Bonaparte, his name was without a parallel in modern Europe. Men were accustomed to look with awe upon the individual, who, without the aid of birth, wealth, or connections, was able by the force of his talents to seize the government of three powerful kingdoms, and impose the yoke of servitude upon the necks of the very men who had fought in his company, to emancipate themselves from the arbitrary sway of their hereditary sovereign.

His abilities
and career.

He owed his elevation to his influence with the army ; and the character of that body and that of their leader were, in a great measure, mutually formed by each other. The officers and soldiers made high professions of religion. Religious exercises were of as frequent occurrence as those of military duty. The generals opened their proceedings in council by prayer ; and among them none were more zealous than Cromwell, and he was regarded by them as the favorite of Heaven.

The name of Cromwell has been subjected to the almost universal charge of unbounded ambition and deep hypocrisy.

His place in history. But the lapse of time has lessened somewhat the severity of judgment passed upon his acts and motives, and many of his admirers regard the principles for which he contended as the foundation of constitutional liberty as enjoyed in England at the present day.

14. Cromwell, in private life, in the several relations of a husband, a father, a neighbor, and a friend, was exemplary.

Private character. From his early days to the close of his career, religion, or religious enthusiasm, formed a distinguished trait in his character ; and it frequently manifested itself in the senate and in the field, and also in his domestic retirement. Some writers have maintained that he was a dissembler in religion as well as in politics ; “but this supposition,” says Dr. Lingard, “is contradicted by the uniform tenor of his life.”

15. Richard Cromwell, after the death of his father, was proclaimed protector. But the contrast between the father and

Richard Cromwell. son was very great. Richard was neither a statesman nor a soldier, had no experience in public business, and possessed feeble talents and little ambition ; and after a few months he resigned the office, and retired to private life. A state of anarchy succeeded, when Gen. Monk, the military commander in Scotland marched his army into England, and crushed the contending factions. A parliament was assembled ; and on the 29th of May, 1660, **Charles II.**, now thirty ears of age, was restored to the throne of his father. This event is generally called the “Restoration.”

CHAPTER IV.

THE STUART FAMILY (PART II.).

FROM THE END OF THE COMMONWEALTH TO THE HOUSE OF
BRUNSWICK.

1660 to 1714, — 54 years.

Charles II.

James II.

William and Mary.

Anne.

THE nation, indiscreetly trusting to the general professions of **Charles II.**, suffered him to assume the crown (1660) without imposing on him any conditions; and his reign and that of James II. exhibit a repetition of struggles similar to those which had occurred under the first two princes of the house of Stuart. The first impressions with regard to the new king were favorable. His manners were easy and familiar, but his habits were indolent; and experience soon proved his character to be profligate and worthless.

2. The change in the public sentiment observable at this period is not a little remarkable. The same people who but a few years before were so jealous of liberty, and exclaimed so loudly against monarchical government, are now exhibited as soliciting with eagerness the return of arbitrary power. A number of the regicides were condemned and executed; and the bodies of Cromwell, Ireton his son-in-law, Bradshaw, and the naval hero Blake, were dug up from their graves, and hanged upon the gallows, to gratify the vindictive spirit of the king and the cavaliers. Measures were soon taken to restore the high prerogatives of the crown, which had been set aside by the Long Parliament,

and an act of Uniformity in religion was passed (1662), by which about two thousand nonconforming ministers were deprived of their livings; and another attempt was made to establish episcopacy in Scotland.

3. The prodigality of Charles kept him always in want. Dunkirk, which had been acquired by Cromwell, he sold to the French for four hundred thousand pounds, which Charles's prodigality. he soon squandered upon his pleasures. He entered into hostilities with the Dutch, which were carried on for some time with spirit. While this war was raging, London was visited (1665) by a terrible plague, which Fire and plague. carried off about ninety thousand inhabitants; and that was followed the next year by a fire, by which seventy-nine churches and many other public buildings, and more than thirteen thousand houses (comprising about two-thirds of the metropolis), were reduced to ashes.

4. In consequence of the unsuccessful issue of the war (which was terminated by the peace of Breda, 1667), and of Dissatisfaction. the sale of Dunkirk, the government became unpopular; and the celebrated Lord Clarendon, on whom the odium was chiefly cast, was banished, and passed the remainder of his life in France. After the fall of Clarendon the government became more unprincipled; and the five ministers by whom it was conducted have been stigmatized by the term of "Cabal," so called from the initial letters of their names, Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, Lauderdale.

5. The Duke of York (afterwards James II.), who had now the chief influence at court, was an avowed Catholic: Charles, Duke of York. so far as he had any sense of religion, was a concealed one, and had the baseness to receive from Louis XIV. of France a pension of two hundred thousand pounds a year for the purpose of establishing the Catholic religion and despotic power in England. A general consternation for the safety of the Protestant religion and of public liberty prevailed; and the latter part of Charles's reign exhibits

an uninterrupted series of attacks upon the lives, liberty, and property of his subjects, and a disgusting scene of party intrigues, and of plots and conspiracies. Yet it was *Habeas Corpus* at this period that Parliament passed the *Habeas Corpus Act*, — a most important security to the subject against personal oppression.

6. A pretended Popish plot to murder the king, disclosed by the infamous Titus Oates, occasioned an unjust execution of Lord Stafford and some other Catholics. Another pretended conspiracy in favor of reform was called *Plots*. the “Rye-House Plot,” from the place where the conspirators held their meetings, in which those eminent patriots Lord Russell and Algernon Sidney were accused of being concerned, and, on testimony supposed to be perjured, were condemned and beheaded.

7. The character of the court, as well as that of the king, was notorious for its profligacy ; and it had a most unhappy influence upon the nation. A general dissoluteness of manners characterized the reign. All appearance of devotion, and all regularity of morals, were regarded as puritanical, and exploded as unfashionable. Charles II. was a man of wit and good-humor, and possessed such talents as enabled him to shine among his gay and profligate companions ; but he had no qualities as a man or a king that entitle him to the respect or gratitude of posterity. *Character of court and nation.*

8. Among the distinguished men who flourished in the reign of Charles were John Milton, the author of “Paradise Lost ;” Sir Matthew Hale, the incorruptible chief justice ; *Distin-* John Bunyan, the author of “Pilgrim’s Progress ;” *guished men.* Sir Christopher Wren, the architect of St. Paul’s Cathedral in London ; the poet Dryden ; John Locke, the philosopher and metaphysician ; and Sir Isaac Newton, the discoverer of the law of gravitation. Halley the astronomer made the first successful prediction of the return of a comet (the one bearing his name) in 1681.

The astronomical observatory at Greenwich was founded by Charles II. ; also the Royal Society for the Promotion of Science, — an association which soon included among its members many scholars who became eminent in the various departments of learning.

9. **James II.**, who succeeded (1685) his brother Charles, was inferior to him in talents, but much more devoted to business. He made good promises to his council ; but, on assuming the government, he soon expressed his contempt for the authority of Parliament, and his determination to reign without restraint. Like his predecessors of the Stuart family, he was arbitrary and impolitic ; and his short and inglorious reign was mainly employed in attempts to re-establish the Catholic religion in the kingdom, and to assert and maintain the supreme prerogative of the crown. He was fearless in the prosecution of his plans ; and, when Parliament refused him supplies, it was at once prorogued.

10. The Duke of Monmouth, a natural son of Charles II., who during the preceding reign had defeated the Scottish Covenanters at Bothwell Bridge, having now excited a rebellion with a view to seize the crown, was defeated, taken prisoner, and beheaded. The most inhuman rigor was exercised against those who favored him. The atrocious Chief Justice Jeffreys, the most noted as an unscrupulous and profligate judge in English history, exercised the most unrelenting cruelty. He gloried in his barbarity, and boasted that he had hanged more men than any other judge since the time of William the Conqueror ; and his bloody career was styled by James, with unfeeling jocularitv, “ Jeffreys’ campaign.”

11. The efforts of James in favor of the Catholic religion were, for a considerable time, attended with success ; but having caused seven bishops to be committed to the Tower for refusing to read a proclamation suspending the Test Act, which required all officers to conform to the Established Church, the passive spirit of the nation disap-

peared, and a general indignation was roused. William, Prince of Orange, who had married Mary, the eldest daughter of James, was invited over, and landed at Torbay with an army, in order to assume the government. The principal nobility and officers soon joined his standard; and James, being deserted by the people, and even by his own children, escaped to France, where he passed the remainder of his life. A convention-parliament declared the king's flight an abdication, and settled the crown upon **William III. and Mary**. This event is styled by British writers the glorious Revolution of 1688.

12. The English navy became quite large and efficient during the reign of James, who, before he came to the throne, had gained some distinction as a naval commander. When Duke of York, he first invented a system of marine signals. The national anthem, "God save the King," was composed and first sung in the reign of this sovereign.

13. The British Constitution now became, in many important points, fixed and determined. The Protestant succession was secured, religious toleration granted, and Presbyterianism re-established in Scotland. A declaration was made, fixing the rights of the subject and the prerogative of the king. Some of the most important articles are the following: 1. The king cannot suspend the laws or their execution. 2. He cannot levy money without the consent of Parliament. 3. The subjects have a right to petition the crown. 4. A standing army cannot be kept in time of peace, but with the consent of Parliament. 5. Elections and parliamentary debates must be free, and parliaments must be frequently assembled.

Archbishop Sancroft, seven other bishops, and a considerable number of the clergy, who held the doctrines of passive obedience and the divine right of kings and bishops, looking upon James as still their lawful king, refused to take the oath of allegiance to William, and were deprived of their stations. From this circumstance they were styled Non-jurors, High-Churchmen, and Jacobites.

14. Ireland still adhered to James, and the Parliament of that country declared William a usurper. Being assisted by Louis XIV. of France, James landed with some French forces in Ireland, where he was joined by a large army; but he was defeated by William at the River Boyne, and the country submitted to the new king. A large fleet which Louis XIV. had prepared in favor of James was destroyed by Admiral Russell off Cape la Hogue; and by the Peace of Ryswick, which followed (1697), the title of William to the crown was acknowledged.

15. William was a man of feeble constitution, but of distinguished talents, especially in war, to which his taste strongly inclined him; and he was esteemed one of the greatest commanders of his age. He was rather fitted to command respect than affection, as he excelled more in the severer than in the milder virtues, being wholly devoted to business, and his manners being cold, grave, and reserved. He was favorable to the freedom of the press, and to constitutional liberty. But he was less popular with his subjects than some other sovereigns of far less merit. Mary, his queen, and partner of the throne, who died seven years before him, was a woman distinguished for her virtues.

16. The Bank of England was founded during William's reign; and the national debt had its origin about the same time, occasioned by borrowing money to meet the great expense of foreign wars.

17. The material progress of the country during the seventeenth century was considerable, and the condition of the lower classes was improved. This was particularly true after the period of the Commonwealth. A distinguished English merchant, who was also chairman of the East-India Company, wrote, near the close of that century, "that in 1688 there were on the 'Change more men worth ten thousand pounds than there were in 1650 worth a thousand; that gentlewomen, in those earlier times, thought themselves

well clothed in a serge gown which a chambermaid would, in 1688, be ashamed to be seen in ; and that, besides the great increase of rich clothes, plate, jewels, and household furniture, coaches were in that time augmented a hundred-fold."

Trade and commerce flourished, especially with the East and with the American Colonies. The cotton manufacture was commenced at Manchester ; and many French Huguenots, driven from France, came into England, and set up their business of silk-weaving. Roads and turnpikes were improved, stage-coaches introduced ; and the mail was carried in bags on horseback, the first post-office being established in 1635. Tea, coffee, tobacco, and spices were introduced ; also calico from Calicut in India.

In 1670 the Duke of Buckingham introduced into England the manufacture of plate glass and crystal by importing workmen from Venice.

A few newspapers were irregularly published during the middle and latter part of the century ; but they were frequently interfered with by the rigid censorship of the press.

Many Dutch painters of distinction were in England during this period, and the fine arts received considerable attention. At the close of the century the population of England was somewhat more than seven millions, and that of London was more than half a million. Its streets, as described by the writers of the time, were narrow, unpaved, and dirty, with no lights except the lantern or torch of the nightly traveller.

18. On the death of William the crown devolved upon **Anne** (1702), the second daughter of James II., who was married to George, Prince of Denmark. In the first year of this reign, Great Britain, Germany, and Holland, in alliance with each other, declared war against France, called the war of the Spanish succession. The Duke of Marlborough, one of the greatest commanders of modern times, was appointed generalissimo of the allied army ; and the imperial general was the celebrated Prince Eugene. In this great contest the allies had greatly the advantage, effectually checked the ambition and encroachments of

Queen Anne.

War of Spanish succession.

Louis XIV., and gained the splendid victories of Blenheim (1704), Ramillies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), and Malplaquet (1709). Gibraltar was captured by Admiral Rooke in 1704, and has ever since remained in the possession of the English. The war was terminated by the Peace of Utrecht in 1713.

19. An important event of this reign was the constitutional union between England and Scotland (1706), which put an end to the contests which had harassed both countries, and included them under one common title of Great Britain. Scotland was immediately represented in Parliament by sixteen peers in the House of Lords, and forty-five members in the House of Commons. This union proved especially beneficial to Scotland, being followed by a rapid development of her business-interests, and by a healthful improvement in the condition of the people and society.

20. Queen Anne was respected for her virtues, and she has been honored by the appellation of "Good Queen Anne;" though, according to Lord Mahon, "she was a very weak woman, always blindly guided by some female favorite." Her principal advisers were the Duchess of Marlborough and her husband, — the duke above mentioned. The duke was not only an able commander, but a successful diplomatist, and one of the most accomplished gentlemen of his age; but at heart he was treacherous, mean, and exceedingly avaricious. After a brilliant career he and the duchess lost favor with the queen, and retired to the Netherlands.

Anne's reign was distinguished not only for military achievements, but also for eminent attainments in philosophy and literature, and is sometimes styled the Augustan age of England, during which many distinguished writers flourished, including Addison, Swift, Pope, Steele, and Bolingbroke.

The queen died suddenly, in August, 1714. She had eighteen children, all of whom died young, one only reaching the age of eleven years.

21. The party names of Whigs and Tories, which are sometimes used to designate parties in England, first became common in the reign of Charles II. The Whigs were advocates for the rights of the people : the Tories Party names. favored those of the crown. The accession of William and Mary was advocated chiefly by the Whigs. During the reign of Anne, parties ran high : the nation was thrown into a ferment by the preaching of Dr. Sacheverell, who inculcated the Tory principle of passive obedience ; and towards the close of the reign the Tories supplanted the Whigs in the queen's favor, and came into power.

22. The sovereigns of the Stuart family were not friends of popular liberty. While they had not that vindictiveness towards opponents and offenders so often The Stuart family. exhibited by the Tudors, they were firm believers in the divine right of kings. In their judgment, laws were for subjects, and not for sovereigns ; and their "high prerogative" seemed to them a sufficient justification for whatever policy was dictated by their pleasure, interest, or caprice. It was their misfortune, perhaps, to live in an age when parliaments had come to manifest considerable boldness and independence, and when the people were noticeably clamoring for freedom of opinion and popular rights. Hence factions and convulsions were the rule rather than the exception. Some of this family had the welfare of the people at heart, and contributed in no small measure to the general prosperity of the realm ; but they lacked that sympathy with the people, and that instinct for progress, necessary for their position. The age of the Stuarts was one in which the opportunity of kings was imperfectly understood, and sinfully abused and neglected.

A. — Topics for Outside Reading.

HENRY VII. Revival of learning.

MOBERLY, ch. VII. GARDINER, II., 367. GREEN, 303.
COLBY, No. 52.

HENRY VIII. 1. Cardinal Wolsey.

GARDINER, II., ch. XXIV. CREIGHTON, "Wolsey."
(English Statesmen Series.) GUEST, 393-6. KENDALL, No.
44, or COLBY, No. 53.

2. Henry's breach with the Church.

GARDINER, II., ch. XXV. On Thomas Cromwell, see
GREEN, 332-48. KENDALL, No. 46. On Sir Thomas More,
GARDINER, II., 387, 394, and "Historical Biographies," 79.
CREIGHTON, "Stories," XXX. KENDALL, Nos. 45, 47.

3. The Crown and Parliament.

MONTAGUE, 92-104.

EDWARD VI. Progress of the Reformation.

GARDINER, II., 413-15, 418-20. KENDALL, No. 49.
COLBY, No. 58.

ELIZABETH. 1. Policy in Church and State.

GARDINER, II., 428-32. CREIGHTON, "Age of Elizabeth,"
43-50, 123-32. GREEN, 370-77.

2. Mary, Queen of Scots.

GARDINER, II., 432-41, 457. CREIGHTON, "Age of Eliza-
beth," 62-79, 169-71. KENDALL, Nos. 53, 55, 58. COLBY,
No. 63.

3. The Spanish Armada.

GARDINER, II., 458-64. CREIGHTON, "Age of Eliza-
beth," 174-80. GREEN, 417-20. KENDALL, No. 59. COMAN
and BATES, 288.

JAMES I. 1. James and the religious question.

KENDALL, No. 69 (Hampton Court conference). GARDINER, "Puritan Revolution," 13-16. COLBY, No. 69. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XXXVII.

2. James's quarrel with Parliament.

GREEN, 477-82. KENDALL, No. 70.

CHARLES I. 1. Charles and his first three parliaments.

GARDINER, II., 502-13. GARDINER, "Puritan Revolution," 48-69. MONTAGUE, 118. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XXXIX. (Sir John Eliot.) For the Petition of Right, see "Old South Leaflet," No. 23. For the closing scene of the third parliament, KENDALL, No. 72. On the Puritan exodus to New England, KENDALL, No. 73.

2. The period of arbitrary government, 1629-40.

On "Land and the Church," GARDINER, II., 516-21. "Puritan Revolution," 85-90, 94-7.

"Wentworth in Ireland," GARDINER, II., 527-8.

"Puritan Revolution," 97-102. MONTAGUE, 120-4.

"Ship money," GARDINER, II., 521-4. "Puritan Revolution," 90-4.

3. The Long Parliament, to the Civil War, 1640-1642.

"Condemnation of Strafford," KENDALL, Nos. 76, 77. COLBY, No. 71. GARDINER, "Puritan Revolution," 111-13.

"Reforming Work of Parliament," GARDINER, II., 531. MONTAGUE, 125-7. "Puritan Revolution," 114.

"Formation of Parliamentary Parties," GARDINER, II., 532-3. "Puritan Revolution," 115-18. MACAULAY, I. MONTAGUE, 127-9.

"Irish Rebellion and the Grand Remonstrance," GARDINER, II., 533-4. "Puritan Revolution," 119-22. MACAULAY, I. "Old South Leaflet," No. 24 (the Grand Remonstrance). KENDALL, No. 78 (attempt on the five members).

4. The Civil War, 1642-49.

On the rise of the Independents, see GARDINER, II., 543. "Puritan Revolution," 131-36. On reorganization of the

army by Cromwell and the Independents, the Self-denying Ordinance and the New Model, GARDINER, II., 544-6. "Puritan Revolution," 137-42. GARDINER, "Historical Biographies," Cromwell. KENDALL, No. 80. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XL. For the quarrel between the Presbyterians in Parliament and the Army, GARDINER, II., 553-57. "Puritan Revolution," 144-52. Trial and execution of the King, GARDINER, II., 557-60. "Puritan Revolution," 153. KENDALL, No. 82. Read also COMAN and BATES, 321.

COMMONWEALTH AND PROTECTORATE.

1. Cromwell in Ireland and Scotland.

GARDINER, II., 562-64. "Puritan Revolution," 156-9. GREEN, 574-8. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XLI.

2. Cromwell's foreign policy.

GARDINER, II., 564, 571-2. "Puritan Revolution," 174-5, 177, 181. COLBY, No. 76. KENDALL, Nos. 86, 87, 88.

3. Cromwell's home government.

GARDINER, II., 565-71, 572-3. "Puritan Revolution," 159-79. GREEN, 580-91, 593-6. COLBY, No. 75. KENDALL, No. 85. Read MACAULAY, I., for an interesting characterization of Puritan rule. COMAN and BATES, 338.

4. Restoration of Charles II.

GARDINER, "Puritan Revolution," 187-9. COLBY, No. 77. KENDALL, No. 90.

CHARLES II. 1. The great plague and the London fire.

KENDALL, No. 93. COLBY, No. 78.

2. Foreign Relations: Dutch wars, intrigues with France (secret treaty of Dover, declaration of indulgence).

GARDINER, II., 589-93, 599-602, 604-6, 611-15. KENDALL, No. 94. GREEN, 633-40.

3. English opposition to Charles's policy: test act, exclusion bill, plots.

GARDINER, II., 606-8, 615-19, 620-7. GREEN, 649-52. MONTAGUE, 140-4. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XLII. KENDALL, Nos. 96, 97. HALE, "Fall of the Stuarts," 18-25, 55-63.

JAMES II. 1. Monmouth's rebellion.

GARDINER, II., 637-8. "Fall of the Stuarts," 89-97.
COLBY, No. 81. On Jeffries and the Bloody Assizes, MACAULAY I.

2. Attempts at absolute government : the dispensing power ; the declaration of indulgence ; trial of the seven bishops.

GARDINER, II., 638-43. "Fall of the Stuarts," 102-8, 119-22. KENDALL, Nos. 98, 99. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XLIII. MACAULAY, II. COMAN and BATES, 345.

3. The coming of William, Prince of Orange.

GARDINER, II., 643-8. "Historical Biographies," 198. "Fall of the Stuarts," 123-42. KENDALL, No. 101. MACAULAY, II. (character of William) ; II. (the convention parliament) ; II., or GARDINER, II., 647 (character of the revolution).

WILLIAM AND MARY. 1. Constitutional gains from the revolution of 1688 : Bill of Rights, Toleration Act, Mutiny Act, Liberty of the Press.

MONTAGUE, 146-52. GARDINER, III., 649-52, 663. For Bill of Rights, see "Old South Leaflet," No. 19, or FISKE, "Civil Government," Appendix D.

2. Establishment of William's power in Ireland and Scotland.

GARDINER, III., 652-7. KENDALL, No. 102. COLBY, No. 84. CREIGHTON, "Stories," XLIV. (Londonderry) XLV. (Glencoe).

3. The Act of Settlement.

MONTAGUE, 153-56. GARDINER, III., 672-4.

ANNE. 1. War of the Spanish succession.

GARDINER, III., 667-9, 671, 675, 678-85, 696-8. COLBY, No. 86. KENDALL, No. 115. COMAN and BATES, 353.

2. Union of Scotland and England.

GARDINER, III., 685. MONTAGUE, 158-61. COLBY, 87.

B. — Topics for Special Reports.

HENRY VII. Events and discoveries greatly changing economic and political life: invention of gunpowder, compass, printing; fall of Constantinople, discovery of America, circumnavigation of Africa.

HENRY VIII. 1. Martin Luther. 2. John Calvin.

3. Suppression of the monasteries.

MOBERLY, "Early Tudors," 188-93. GARDINER, II., 394, 396-7. COLBY, No. 147.

4. What is a bill of attainder?

ELIZABETH. 1. The evils of sheep-raising.

KENDALL, Nos. 62-4.

2. The reformation in Scotland, and John Knox.

JAMES I. 1. The King James version of the Bible.

2. Bates' case and the impositions. 3. Career and character of Francis Bacon.

CHARLES I. 1. The case of the five knights.

GARDINER, II., 506.

2. Compare the political views of Eliot and Wentworth.

GARDINER, II., 508.

3. Define Episcopalian, Presbyterian, Independent, forms of church government in the time of Charles.

4. Cromwell's Ironsides. 5. The part taken by the Scots in the Civil War. 6. Pride's purge.

CROMWELL. 1. Of what benefit to England was Cromwell's rule? 2. Why was his government unpopular? On what was his power based?

CHARLES II. 1. Who were the Dissenters? Are there any in England to-day?

2. Who were the members of the Triple Alliance, and what was its object?

GARDINER, II., 599.

3. Charles's attack on the city charters.

GARDINER, II., 622-5.

4. The coffee-houses.

GARDINER, II. COLBY.

JAMES II. 1. The case of Sir Edward Hales.

2. The expulsion of the Fellows of Magdalen College.
3. Compare the Stuarts with the Tudors. Let three points be: personal character, relations with parliament, reputation of England abroad.

WILLIAM AND MARY. 1. Compare the Petition of Right, Bill of Rights, Constitution of the United States, and the constitution of your own State on these points: taxation; quartering of troops; freedom of speech; freedom from arbitrary arrest.

2. Compare the Triennial Acts of 1641 and 1694.

ANNE. 1. The Sacheverell case.

GARDINER, III., 690.

2. Marlborough as a general.

C. — Map Work.

1. The possessions of the Emperor Charles V.
2. Division of England in 1642 between Cavaliers and Roundheads.
3. Locate Edgehill, Marston Moor, Naseby, Newbury, Drogheda, Dunbar, Worcester, Sedgemoor, Boyne, Blenheim.
4. What territory did England gain by the peace of Utrecht, 1713?

CHAPTER V.

THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK (PART I.).

1714 to 1837, — 123 years.

George I.
George II.

George III.
George IV.

William IV.

ON the death of Queen Anne (1714), **George I.**, Elector of Hanover, succeeded to the crown, in the fifty-fifth year of his age. He was the son of the Duke of Brunswick, Elector of Hanover, and, on his mother's side, was the great-grandson of James I. of England. Before he ascended the throne he had acquired some reputation as a politician and a general. He was plain in his manners, and not of elevated character or taste; but he was a man of great application to business, and his reign was pacific and prosperous. Some faults in his government were attributed to a venal ministry; and he was esteemed to the end of his life, in his views and conduct, much more the Elector of Hanover than the King of England. Sir Robert Walpole was George's principal adviser, and was one of the most eminent statesmen of his time.

2. The two parties, which had long divided the kingdom, now, for a time, changed their titles: the Whigs being styled Hanoverians; and the Tories, Jacobites. The former, being strenuous advocates for the accession of George, received, in return, from him favor and support, and were restored to power. This circumstance alienated and enraged the Tories to such a degree, that many of them took part with the Pretender, son of James II., who was proclaimed

king in Scotland, and made an effort to obtain the crown ; but the rebellion was suppressed, and the leaders executed.

3. A pacific reign like that of George I. furnishes few events of importance in history. One, however, of disastrous consequences, occurred, commonly called the "South-sea Bubble," — a wild scheme of speculation by the South-sea Bubble. South Company, who had the exclusive right to trade with the Spanish Colonies in America, and who bought up the government annuities, paying for them in its own stock. In this way it promised to pay off the national debt, and to loan the government money at a low rate of interest. It was a base imposture, giving a great shock to public credit, and involving thousands in ruin.

4. The Septennial Act made the length of a parliament seven years, instead of three as before. One object of this change was to avoid the excitement of frequent elections, and changes of parliament. Septennial Act.

5. During this reign Daniel Defoe wrote "Robinson Crusoe," Dean Swift gave to the world his "Gulliver's Travels," Watts composed many of his sacred lyrics, and Thomson published the first part of his poem called "The Seasons." Literary celebrities.

King George died of apoplexy, in Germany, in 1727, leaving one son, who became his successor.

6. **George II.**, who succeeded his father (1727) in the forty-fourth year of his age, was an able general of great personal courage, but was too fond of war, and delighted in military parade. The most prominent person in the administration in the former part of the reign (as in the previous reign also) was Sir Robert Walpole, a man whose policy was pacific, and who was distinguished for his talents, and not less so for the system of corruption and venality which he practised while in office. Walpole.

7. The military operations of this reign were extensive and numerous ; and the British arms were, for the most part, tri-

umphant. Charles VI., Emperor of Germany, who died in 1740, was succeeded in his dominions by his daughter, the celebrated Maria Theresa (*Te-ré-zah*), who was married to Francis of Lorraine. But Charles, the Elector of Bavaria, asserted his claim to the throne, and, by the aid of Louis XV., was elected emperor. This gave rise to a war, which involved the principal states of Europe, called the war of the Austrian succession, during which the allies under George II. defeated the French in the battle of Dettingen (1743), and the French under Marshal Saxe routed the allies at Fontenoy (1745). Great Britain was the principal support of Maria Theresa; and by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle (*Akes-lah-cha-pel*) in 1748 her claim to the throne was confirmed.

8. While George II. was absent on the Continent at the head of the British army, Charles Edward, the young Pretender, assisted by Louis XV. of France, made an effort to recover the throne of his ancestors. Having landed in Scotland, he put himself at the head of an army, and defeated the royal forces in the battles of Preston-Pans and Falkirk, but was afterwards entirely defeated by the Duke of Cumberland in the decisive battle of Culloden (1746). This was the last battle that has been fought on the soil of Great Britain; and it terminated the last effort of the Stuart family to re-ascend the throne, which had been forfeited by an obstinate disregard of the rights of the people.

9. In the latter part of this reign the war between Great Britain and France, called the "Seven-Years' War," was renewed, in which their American Colonies also took part. In an expedition by the English and Americans against the French at Fort Duquesne (*Du-káne*), now Pittsburg, Penn., George Washington, then a young officer in the Virginia militia, distinguished himself in conducting the retreat of the forces after their commander, Gen. Braddock, had been slain. In the course of a

The Aus-
trian suc-
cession.

Seven-
Years' War.
Wash-
ington.

few years the English took Duquesne, Louisburg (on the Island of Cape Breton), Ticonderoga, Crown Point, Niagara ; and finally, under the command of Gen. Wolfe, they gained possession (1759) of the city of Quebec. These successes were followed by the surrender of all Canada, on the part of the French, to the English, in 1763.

10. Extensive conquests in India were made by the English during this period. In the time of Elizabeth a company was chartered for trade in the East Indies ; and by subsequent renewals of its charter, and acts of Parliament, its business and operation became very extensive under the name of the "East-India Company." Its principal factories or trading-posts were at Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta. The French had similar stations in India, and were making vigorous efforts to monopolize the trade and control of the country.

11. In 1751, Robert Clive, a former clerk of the East-India Company, with a few soldiers, and by the aid of some of the friendly native princes, made a sudden attack upon the French and their allies, and completely routed them, and secured to the British the country along the east coast called the Carnatic. A few years later, Clive, with three thousand men, met and defeated Surajah Dowlah, the Nabob of Bengal, with an army of sixty thousand men, and added that rich and populous province to British India.

12. During the reign of George II. Great Britain made great progress in wealth and general improvement. The national debt, however, was more than doubled during the reign ; and at the end of the Seven-Years' War, in 1763, it amounted to nearly a hundred and thirty-nine million pounds. This debt was commenced during the reign of William and Mary, and at the end of the reign of George III. it amounted to upwards of eight hundred million pounds.

13. George's temper was violent, his talents respectable, though little cultivated by education, and his internal administration generally equitable and popular ; but his private

character was licentious, and the morals of the court during George's his reign were very corrupt. His partialities in character. favor of his continental dominions are represented as still stronger than those of his father, and he has been censured for involving Great Britain in expensive wars on account of the interests of the electorate of Hanover. He died suddenly in 1760 at the age of seventy-seven, after a reign of thirty-three years.

The distinguished musical composer Handel, a native of Germany, though long a resident in England, died Handel. in London in 1759.

14. **George III.**, grandson and successor of George II., was the first king of the house of Brunswick that was born in State of the England. He commenced his reign (1760) at an country. auspicious period, when the arms of Great Britain were triumphant, and the administration able and popular. The war with France was, not long afterwards, brought to a close ; and, by the Peace of Paris, Canada, and other territories in North America, were confirmed to England.

15. William Pitt (afterwards Lord Chatham) was at the head of the administration during the last years of the preceding William reign ; and in the former part of this he was the Pitt. most prominent public man in the nation. At this period oppressive measures were adopted by the British Government with regard to the American Colonies. These Oppression of American Colonies. Chatham opposed with his powerful eloquence ; but they were persisted in by the king and Parliament. The Colonies were taxed, but had no representation in Parliament ; and a law called the "Stamp Act," requiring a stamp, purchased of the government, to be affixed to every legal document in the Colonies, was passed by Parliament in 1765. The British Government found great difficulty in enforcing this act, and other measures obnoxious to the Americans were stoutly resisted by them.

16. In 1775 hostilities commenced, and a very stubborn spirit

of resistance was everywhere manifested by the Colonies. The first engagements took place at Concord and Lexington, and Bunker Hill, in Massachusetts; and the Americans soon after captured important forts on the west side of Lake Champlain. In the following year (July 4, 1776) a declaration of the independence of the United States was made, in which were boldly set forth the grievances of the Colonies, and their right and determination to be free and independent. The war continued nearly seven years (during which more than fifty engagements took place), and was virtually terminated by the surrender of the British army, under Cornwallis, at Yorktown, Va., in October, 1781. The independence of the Colonies was finally acknowledged by Great Britain, by a treaty signed at Paris in September, 1783.

The American Revolution.

17. The East-India Company had now become a powerful political organization for English supremacy in the East; and by its vast acquisitions of territory were made, and great injustice and robbery were practised upon the natives. Warren Hastings was appointed Governor-general of British India in 1774. He was a man of distinguished ability and dauntless courage; and his administration was highly beneficial to British interests in India, which he successfully defended against an invading army of ninety thousand men, under Hyder Ali (*Hider Ah'-lee*), a noted Mohammedan chieftain of Mysore. But the expense of numerous wars, and his efforts to satisfy the repeated demands of the East-India Company for a larger revenue, induced Hastings to resort to measures that were unjust, and which finally resulted in his downfall. He was accused of repeated exaction and extortions towards the natives; of seizing provinces, and selling them for money to the chiefs of rival districts; of plundering the holy city of Benares; and finally of imprisoning two princesses of Oude, until they paid him a ransom, or fine, of about six million dollars. After an administration of eleven years, he resigned his office, and returned to England, where he was afterwards im-

Warren Hastings.

peached by the House of Commons before the peers of the realm.

18. The trial of Hastings was one of the most remarkable upon record. It was held in Westminster Hall, which was **Hastings's** begun by William Rufus, and which had been the trial. scene of the trial and conviction of Wallace the Scot, Oldcastle, Thomas More, Somerset, Essex, Guy Fawkes, Strafford, Bacon, and Charles I. There, also, had been held the coronation festivities of nearly thirty of England's kings. The opening of the trial took place in the presence of many of the most distinguished personages of the land. The peers sat clothed in gold and ermine; and there were present the high officials of the kingdom, ambassadors of foreign powers, civil and military celebrities, Mrs. Siddons the celebrated actress, Sir Joshua Reynolds the painter, Gibbon the historian, the eminent scholar Dr. Parr, and many of the distinguished women of court and society.

The prosecution was conducted by Burke, Fox, Sheridan, and others, all eminent as orators and public men. The opening speech of Burke occupied nearly four days, and was one of the most masterly efforts of the kind ever delivered. Hastings afterwards declared, that, at times during its delivery, he began to look upon himself as a guilty man. The trial was continued from time to time, during each session of Parliament, for seven years, occupying altogether one hundred and forty-eight days; and at its close, in 1795, Hastings was acquitted.

19. In the latter part of the century there was much discontent in Ireland, occasioned principally by a party who wished to sever their connection with England. An insurrec-
Union of
England and
Ireland.
tion occurred, in which two hundred and fifty thou-
sand people took part; but it was soon suppressed,
 and in 1800, after some opposition, Great Britain and Ireland were united under one Parliament, and took the name of "The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland."

20. In 1789 the French Revolution broke out, convulsing all Europe; and it was thought to threaten the overthrow of all established government. The government of Great Britain, alarmed respecting its own safety, embarked zealously in the European war with a view to check the dissemination of democratic principles both at home and abroad. The system of operations was devised and managed under the direction of William Pitt, the son of Lord Chatham, who was now at the head of the administration. This calamitous war continued to convulse the Continent for a quarter of a century; and, during a part of the time, Great Britain alone had all Europe arrayed against her. But, after various alternations of failure and success, she came off victorious, yet not without an immense loss of the blood of her subjects, and a vast increase of her national debt.

21. Some of the British victories during this war were important, and are conspicuous in military history. In 1798 Napoleon Bonaparte, at that time commander-in-chief of the French armies, invaded Egypt, intending to get control of that country, and then to menace the British possessions in India. Lord Nelson, in command of an English fleet, followed, and, after a long search through the Mediterranean, came upon the French fleet in Aboukir (*Ah-bou-keer'*) Bay, near Alexandria. A brilliant engagement, generally called the Battle of the Nile, soon followed, by night (Aug. 1), in which Nelson was the victor, and the French fleet was nearly annihilated. Brueys (*Bru-ā'*), the French admiral, was killed, and his flag-ship, "The Orient," took fire and exploded, causing the death of his youthful son, Cassabianca, — an event touchingly commemorated in a poem of that name by Mrs. Hemans.

22. In October, 1805, Nelson fought another naval battle, against the combined French and Spanish fleets, off Cape Trafalgar, on the coast of Spain. Before going into action, he signalled to his fleet the order which has

rendered his name famous: "England expects every man to do his duty." The contest was a fierce one, with a heavy loss on both sides; but the English were completely victorious, although Nelson was mortally wounded by a musket-ball, and died on board his flagship, "The Victory."

23. The Spanish Peninsula was the scene of many brilliant campaigns during this war. In 1809 Sir John Moore, a celebrated English general, was in command of the allied forces against the French under Marshal Soult, and fought a successful battle at Corunna (Jan. 16), in which he lost his life. His hasty burial at night, on the ramparts of Corunna, has been made historic by the poet Wolfe, in one of the finest odes in the English language, commencing, —

"Not a drum was heard, not a funeral note."

24. The Duke of Wellington won many of his laurels in the peninsula. In 1809, in command of the English and Spanish forces, he gained a decisive victory over the French, at Talavera, in what he himself called one of the hardest fought battles of modern times. It continued two days and a night, and each party lost a fourth of its numbers.

Wellington fought an equally decisive battle at Salamanca (1812), in which, taking advantage of some mistakes of the enemy, his movements splendidly displayed his military genius, and established his reputation as one of the greatest commanders of the age. To be able to avail one's self fully and safely of the flood-tide of opportunity, is one of the surest high-roads to successful military achievement.

A third contest was waged, with similar good fortune, at Vittoria, in 1813. The victory here was complete; and the captures of cannon, wagons, ammunitions, treasure, and cattle, were very large.

25. But the crowning battle of this general war in Europe

was fought on the 18th of June, 1815, near the village of Waterloo, in Belgium, a few miles south of Brussels. The **Waterloo.** allied troops, composed of English, Belgians, and **The forces.** Germans, were commanded by Wellington, and the French by Napoleon. The armies engaged were of nearly equal numbers, each having more than seventy thousand troops; those of the French being mostly tried veterans, with two hundred and forty cannon, while the allies were made up of several nationalities, with some raw troops, and a hundred and forty-nine cannon. A large body of Prussian allies, under Blucher (*Block'-er*), were a few miles distant, holding in check the enemy in that quarter, with instructions, if defeated, to join Wellington. Napoleon sent Marshal Grouchy (*Grood'-shy*), with more than twenty thousand men, to watch Blucher, and to prevent him, if possible, from coming to the aid of the allies.

26. On the night of the 17th the two armies took their positions on two opposite semicircular ridges, separated by a shallow valley, or plain, varying from a fourth to less than a half of a mile in width. During the **The battle.** night the rain fell in torrents, much to the discomfort of the troops and to the embarrassment of their movements during the ensuing forenoon. The attack was begun by the French at eleven o'clock A.M.; and a terrific battle, hotly contested, continued until dark. The French made some important gains during the day, but towards evening they were driven back with great loss; and when Blucher arrived, at about seven o'clock, the rout became complete. Grouchy, by a literal interpretation of his orders, neglected to come to the relief of Napoleon. The last rally and charge by the French was made by the Old Guards, nearly all of whom perished; and the battle was lost. Blucher continued in pursuit of the fugitives during a considerable part of the night.

The total loss was not far from twenty-five thousand on each side, and two hundred and twenty-seven of the French cannon were taken. Several distinguished English officers fell, and the

French Marshal Ney had five horses shot under him. Napoleon escaped to Paris, and attempted to embark for America, but was taken by the allies, and imprisoned upon the Island of St. Helena.

Losses.

The battle of Waterloo was one of the most important in its consequences in modern times. It put an end to the ambitious career of Napoleon, who had been a disturbing element in European affairs for many years, gave to England the first position among the great powers of Europe, and inaugurated a better policy for the progress of civilization.

27. In 1812 the United States declared war against Great Britain. English men-of-war had repeatedly searched American ships, and impressed English sailors found thereon. The United States denied the right of British authorities to make such search, and hostilities ensued. The war was carried on principally upon the water, where more than twenty naval actions took place. A few engagements upon land occurred along the Canadian frontier and in the vicinity of Chesapeake Bay; and at New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1815, the last battle was fought, in which the Americans, under Gen. Andrew Jackson, gained a decisive victory over the British under Packenham (*Pak'n-am*). A treaty of peace was signed at Ghent, Dec. 24, 1814, before the battle of New Orleans, although at that time no news of such a treaty had reached America. In that treaty no mention was made of the question of the right of search, which had occasioned the war.

War with the United States.

28. The reign of George III., who died in 1820, was longer than that of any other English monarch; and it forms a distinguished period in the history of the kingdom, on account of its military events and the progress of the nation in commerce, wealth, and the arts. During the last ten years of his life he was afflicted with insanity to such a degree as entirely disqualified him for all business, and

Character of George III.'s reign.

the Prince of Wales acted as regent. His talents were not brilliant, nor were his views as a statesman enlarged; but his private character was exemplary, and he was much respected by his subjects.

29. A large number of persons distinguished in the various walks of life lived during this reign. Among the eminent orators, statesmen, and barristers, were Burke, Fox, **Eminent** the elder and the younger Pitt, Curran, and **statesmen.** Grattan, and Sheridan, a dramatist also. To these may be added Blackstone, a jurist, legal writer, and author of "Commentaries on English Law," a standard text-book in the legal profession; Lord Mansfield, chief justice of the King's Bench for more than thirty years; Lord North, prime-minister to George III., and a strenuous opponent of the American Colonies; and Lord Chesterfield, a noted courtier, orator, and wit, and regarded as a model of politeness, and, in fashionable society, a kind of oracle of taste.

30. Some of the numerous literary celebrities were the poets Burns and Byron, both of extraordinary genius; Gray, author of "The Elegy written in a Country Churchyard;" **Literary** Coleridge, poet and critic; Cowper (*Koo'-per*), au- **celebrities.** thor of "The Task;" Walter Scott, novelist and poet; Goldsmith, poet and miscellaneous writer, and author of "The Vicar of Wakefield;" and Sterne, who wrote "Tristram Shandy" and "The Sentimental Journey." Samuel Johnson, a great scholar and distinguished writer, was the author of an English dictionary, of "The Lives of the Poets," and of many poems and critical writings.

31. In the department of historical literature, Hume was the author of a "History of England;" Gibbon **Historians.** wrote "The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire;" and Robertson is best known by his "History of the Life and Times of Charles V. of Germany."

32. In 1769 a series of political letters and satires, over the signature of "Junius," appeared, and were continued for about

three years. They were written with remarkable ability, and criticised the government and public men with unusual severity. It has generally been supposed that they were written by Sir Philip Francis, though their real authorship was never known.

33. Sir Joshua Reynolds stands unsurpassed among English portrait-painters; and Mrs. Siddons, a native of South Wales, was the most celebrated actress Great Britain has ever produced. David Garrick was also an eminent actor and dramatist.

34. Whitefield (*Hwit'-feeld*) and John Wesley, both dissenters, were distinguished popular preachers, and both visited America. Wesley became the founder of the denomination of Methodists; and his brother Charles, a preacher also, was the author of many religious hymns of great popularity.

35. In the military and naval history of Great Britain, there are many examples of brilliant achievement and patriotic devotion to their country's welfare; but in this respect none are surer of lasting fame, and a place in the hearts of their countrymen, than Nelson and Wellington, some of whose exploits have been mentioned.

36. Toward the latter part of this reign a new kind of periodical publication had its origin, in "The Edinburgh Review" (1802), the organ of the Whig and reforming party, which was followed (1809) by its rival, "The London Quarterly Review," which became a bold advocate of Tory principles. In 1817 "Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine" (monthly) was established under the editorship of Professor John Wilson, known as Christopher North. This magazine has also striven to be a check upon the doctrines advocated by "The Edinburgh Review." These publications are still continued, and have always been edited with great ability, and have exerted among the educated classes a wide influence in politics, literature, social and religious affairs.

37. During the period of a hundred and twenty years, between the beginning of the eighteenth century and the close of the reign of George III. (in 1820), very considerable progress was made by the government and people of Great Britain. Gradually the power of the sovereign had come to be administered through his counsellors or ministry, rather than by himself personally. Progress made.

38. The condition of the common people had long been one of hardship and suffering; but in the early part of the present century, even amid burdens grievous to be borne, some improvement began to be realized. Condition of the people. During the latter part of the general European war, nearly a million of people were engaged, directly and indirectly, in carrying on war's destructive work. This lessened the number of laborers at home, and greatly increased the demand for some products needed by the army; in consequence of which, wages became more remunerative, and afforded a better support to the poor. Carpenters, masons, and hand-loom weavers, earned variously, in Scotland and England, from seventeen to twenty-five shillings per week; while field-hands and unskilled laborers received from eleven to fifteen shillings for the same time.

After the close of the war, many of the industries of the country were less profitable: employment was not always to be found, and the pay was greatly reduced. The introduction of the power-loom caused much distress among the hand-weavers, compelling them to labor, for sixteen or eighteen hours per day, for the pittance of from nine to sixteen pence.

39. But war-prices of bread, meat, clothing, and other necessities of life, more than kept pace with war-wages. In 1792 wheat sold for five shillings and tenpence per bushel, while in 1801 the price rose to twenty-two shillings and sixpence. Cost of living. Legislation was mostly controlled by land-owners, and hence land-owners and farmers were prosperous. The importation of wheat was prohibited by law,

until it became very scarce and the price high; and cattle could not be introduced from abroad on any terms. Thus prices were kept high, and the farmer was able to pay large rents for the benefit of the landlords; while the laboring classes were kept poor, and were often reduced to the verge of starvation. Famines were of not uncommon occurrence. In Edinburgh, at one time, one-eighth of the people were supported by charity; and at Paisley the whole population were sometimes absolutely without bread or meal. The magistrates of some districts prescribed the amount of bread families were expected to consume.

40. The expenses of living were greatly increased by high taxes on many of the comforts of life. Tea and sugar were so exorbitantly taxed, that their use was much restricted; and the tax on salt was forty times the cost of its manufacture. The windows of houses were also taxed; and this compelled many poor people to build them up, and the shutting-out of light resulted in much discomfort and sickness. The revenue from paper was three times greater than the amount of wages paid to all the laborers engaged in its manufacture. Toward the close of the eighteenth century, newspapers, which had come to have considerable influence in public affairs, were taxed; and, as their influence was frequently in favor of liberal principles, the government made this tax, in 1814, fourpence on every copy printed, partly for revenue, but also to keep them from the common people.

The aggregate of taxation for the support of government was enormous. At the close of the war with the American Colonies, it was about one pound for each person of the entire population, and in 1814 it rose above five pounds for each inhabitant.

41. The criminal laws of Great Britain in the eighteenth century were very severe. They designated more than two hundred capital offences, three-fourths of which originated in the legislation of the time of the

Georges. Shooting rabbits, stealing property of the value of five shillings or more, or stealing any thing from a bleach-field, appearing in disguise on the highway, cutting down young trees, writing threatening letters to extort money, and numerous other similar offences, were all punishable with death. In 1816 one hundred and four persons were convicted of forgery, of whom eighteen were executed. Felons seemed to be regarded as incapable of reform, and their lives as useless to themselves and to society.

42. The execution of the laws was barbarous in the extreme. The bodies of persons hanged were often afterwards beheaded and cut in pieces, and exposed in public places ; Execution of laws. and special indignities were shown to those convicted of treason. Prisons were small and unventilated, with little light, damp floors, and without beds, and infested with vermin. In such apartments, prisoners were huddled together irrespective of age or sex, where prison- Prisons. fevers and other diseases often found more victims than the law.

Jailers received no salary, but derived their income from selling food, straw for bedding, and other favors, to the prisoners. Those acquitted of crime by the courts were obliged to pay all dues to the jailer before they could be released ; and this sometimes resulted in additional imprisonment for months, and even for years.

43. In the latter part of the century, John Howard, called the "Philanthropist," became so impressed with the inhumanity of the English prison system, that he heroically set John Howard. himself to work to secure its reform, — a task slow of accomplishment, but one which eventually resulted in great improvement in the prisons and in the comfort of their unfortunate inmates.

44. The poor, also, about this time began to receive additional attention. The magistrates were authorized, by a special law, to contribute to their relief from the public treasury.

This power was too freely exercised ; and abuses of the law followed to such an extent as to greatly increase the number of paupers, and to produce among the lower classes a general disinclination to labor. The expense, too, became alarming. In 1801 the aggregate poor-rates for England and Wales were four million pounds, and in 1818 they reached twice that sum. This burden became a prominent subject of reform in a subsequent reign.

45. Trade and commerce were extended in all directions. The trade with the American Colonies before the war had been considerable, but after that event it was greatly increased. Rice, tobacco, and other products were extensively imported ; and, from the West-India Islands, sugar was obtained in large quantities ; while mahogany and other ornamental woods, and logwood, were brought from the Central-American states, and especially from British Honduras, which had been acquired in 1783.

Many vessels and much capital were engaged in the East-India trade, which brought to England a great variety of useful products, and yielded a revenue to the government and large profits to the adventurers. The trade with Holland and some other European countries had also become more extended and lucrative. The importation of foreign commodities added much to the wealth of the nation and to the comforts of the people.

The navigation of the English Channel was rendered safer by the erection, in 1759, of the Eddystone Lighthouse, a substantial stone structure, on a dangerous reef of rocks on the south coast of England.

46. The manufacturing interest was prosperous, and great improvements were made. This was noticeably true in articles of porcelain and earthenware. In 1759 Wedgwood established an ornamental pottery, and soon after produced the delicate cream-colored ware, covered with a glaze, called by his name, though better known as queen's ware. It

was furnished at a rate which brought it within the reach of the common people. He also executed copies of antique vases, sculpture, and cameos, of most exquisite workmanship. This branch of manufactures became very extensive and lucrative, and did much to refine the national taste.

About the middle of the century, forty thousand people were engaged in the manufacture of cutlery at Sheffield, where the business had been introduced in the fourteenth century, and fifty thousand were employed at Birmingham in producing hardware, and various articles of iron and steel.

The invention of the spinning-jenny and other machinery, and the use of steam, gave an impulse to the production of silk, woollen, and cotton fabrics. When the spinning-jennies were first introduced, they were often destroyed by the ignorant hand-spinners, who feared that they would take from them their occupation. Steam-power was also employed in many of the large iron-works, and in the coal-mines, which had come to be extensively worked.

47. Agriculture received more attention, and was much improved. Flower and vegetable gardens were very common among all classes: the potato was introduced and cultivated, and became an article of common food. Agriculture.
Before 1720, greenhouses, for the cultivation of flowers and tropical fruits, had been introduced.

48. The state of religion was low, in the Established Church and among dissenters, in the early part of the eighteenth century. Many of the clergy were better known for their high living, worldly-mindedness, and their Religion.
fondness for fox-hunting, than for their spiritual gifts and ministrations; and among laymen, corruption and vice were fearfully prevalent. But later in the century there was an improvement in religion and morals, brought about largely by the preaching of Whitefield and Wesley and their followers. Sabbath schools were established by Robert Raikes in 1781.

49. The severe laws against the Catholics, passed in the

reign of William and Mary, extended their imbittering influence into and nearly through the eighteenth century. **Laws against Catholics.** No Catholic could teach school, hold a civil office, or conduct any religious rites; and all Catholic youth were obliged to abjure their religion at the age of eighteen, or forfeit all their rights to property, which could be claimed by their Protestant relatives.

An act was passed in 1788, called the Catholic Relief Bill, which removed those disabilities, except in relation to holding office. This law met with much opposition among Protestants, and was so stoutly resisted in Scotland, that it could not be carried into operation. In London, in 1780, it occasioned riots, which continued for a week, and were suppressed only by military power after the loss of five hundred lives and the destruction of a vast amount of property.

50. The general literature of this period does not take a high rank. In 1709 Steele started a tri-weekly publication, called **Literature and authors.** "The Tatler," devoted to essays rather than to news; and this was followed, in 1711, by "The Spectator," a daily of a similar character conducted by Addison. The essays in these publications were of a high order, and are regarded as models of good style.

The number of noted authors, aside from those already mentioned, in the reign of George III., was not large. Daniel Defoe, a miscellaneous writer of considerable power, published in 1719 "Robinson Crusoe," a work of remarkable popularity; and Dean Swift, a celebrated divine, satirist, and wit, gave to the world in 1726 "Gulliver's Travels," a kind of satire on mankind and the institutions of civilized countries. Fielding, who flourished about the middle of the century, is often called the father of the English novel; and to the same school belonged Richardson and Smollet; but the merit of their works has not secured for them a prominent or an enduring place in literature.

51. The introduction of many articles from China, Japan,

and India, the use of mahogany and other ornamental woods, and the improved quality of some kinds of household furniture, such as chairs, tables, bedsteads, and cabinets, gave to the dwellings of all classes a better furnishing and adornment. Old furniture of that period is now often sought for on account of the excellence of its style and manufacture. The Kidderminster carpets began to be made about the middle of the century, and soon after came into general use among the wealthier classes.

52. The fine arts were not neglected. The Royal Academy of Art was founded in 1768; and the names of Kneller, West, Hogarth (the painter of morals and manners in high life, as well as low), and Reynolds (the founder of the English school of painting), are classic names in art. Much progress was also made in music in its various departments, and especially in sacred music. Many of the productions of that period are still in use. The oratorio was first brought out in London by Handel in 1720.

53. The state of society can hardly be spoken of in terms of praise. The principles of religion and morals had but little restraining influence upon the people in domestic and social life. The men were much given to dissipation and gambling; and the women, generally very ignorant, were addicted to frivolity and gossip. The principal amusements of the different classes were hunting, fishing, music, dancing, dice, cards, puppet-shows, football, fairs, and the frequenting of watering-places. The man of fashion is described as dressed in a cocked hat, powdered wig, and gold-laced scarlet coat; while the lady, with powdered hair, and patches upon her face, was attired in flowered brocades and immense hoops.

54. But there was an improvement in society during the latter part of this period, and especially after the close of the European war. The education and the morals of the better classes received more attention, and the youth of all classes began to receive instruction in Sunday schools.

Literary clubs were formed ; periodical literature became quite common ; bitterness of feeling towards the Catholics was lessened ; and the general tone of public sentiment was more elevated and improved.

55. Several events of general importance took place during the period now under review. The uniform of the Notable English navy (blue faced with white) was adopted events. by George II. in 1748, who saw and admired those colors in a riding-dress worn by the Duchess of Bedford.

In 1752 Parliament changed the mode of reckoning time, which in the course of many centuries, since the adoption of the Julian Calendar, had ceased to be correct. Eleven days, from the 3d to the 14th of September, were left out of the calendar ; and this is known as the change from Old Style to New Style. It was opposed by some ignorant people, who believed that it shortened their lives by that number of days. This is called (from Pope Gregory XIII.) the Gregorian Calendar.

The first canal in England was constructed in 1755, for the purpose of carrying coals from the mines to Manchester.

The first savings bank in England was established at Tottenham, in 1798, for the earnings of poor children ; and the first London savings bank was opened in 1816.

In 1805, at Methyr Tydvil, in Wales, a steam-carriage was first drawn over an iron railway by a locomotive, carrying ten tons of coal, at a speed of five miles an hour ; and the first passenger steamboat in Great Britain, called "The Comet," made its appearance upon the Clyde in 1812.

A portion of London was lighted by gas in 1807 ; but the measure was fiercely opposed by capitalists and seamen, who contended that it would throw out of employment thousands of men engaged in the whaling business and in the building of whale-ships, and render idle millions of capital invested in that enterprise. No agency in modern times has interposed so effectual a check upon the commission of crime in cities and towns by night as gaslights in the streets.

In 1817 a new bridge over the Thames in London was completed, and, in honor of the recent victory, was named the Waterloo Bridge. It is nearly fourteen hundred feet long, cost over five million dollars, and is regarded as one of the finest bridges in the world.

56. The population of England and Wales is believed to have been, in 1710, somewhat more than 5,000,000; that of Scotland, about 1,000,000; and of Ireland, more than 2,000,000; making a total of over 7,000,000. Population.

The first official census of England was in 1801, but it is not regarded as fully reliable. The first in Ireland was in 1821. In 1801 the whole population, exclusive of Ireland, was about 10,500,000, and in 1811, nearly 12,000,000. Soon after the close of the reign of George III. (1821); the total population was 21,000,000, of which more than 6,000,000 belonged to Ireland.

The population of London in 1801 was 958,000; in 1811, 1,138,000; and in 1821, 1,378,000. Liverpool, with a population of 5,000 in 1700, rose to 77,600 in 1801, and to about 119,000 in 1821. Edinburgh then numbered more than 100,000, and Glasgow, 147,000.

57. George IV., who succeeded his father in 1820, was a man of talents and accomplishments: but his life, during both his youth and his manhood, had been marked by Character of George IV great prodigality and dissipation; and there was little in his character or his conduct, while a sovereign, to entitle him to the affection or respect of his subjects. While a prince, and not in power, he connected himself with the opposition, or Whigs; but, both as regent and king, he adhered to the Tories, to the neglect of his former friends.

58. Soon after the accession of George IV. a bill for divorcing and degrading the queen, Caroline, on charges Queen Caroline. of misconduct, was introduced into the House of Lords, and, after being carried by a vote of a hundred and eight to ninety-nine, was abandoned. The queen died soon after.

59. The Greeks having for some years maintained a sanguinary struggle for independence against the Turks, an interposition in their favor was made by England, France, **Greek** and Russia; and the united fleets of these three **affairs.** powers obtained, in 1827, a great victory over the Turkish and Egyptian fleets in the Bay of Navarino (see map, p. 195).

60. In 1828 the Corporation and Test Act, which had long operated to exclude Catholics and Dissenters from all corporate offices, was repealed; and it was followed (in 1829) **Relief of** by the still more important measure of Catholic **Catholics.** emancipation. By this act the laws imposing civil disabilities on Roman Catholics were partially repealed; and Daniel O'Connell, the Irish orator and political agitator, took his seat in the House of Commons. In addition to these great national measures, many other important alterations and improvements were made in the laws of Great Britain during the reign of George IV. The penal code was improved by rendering punishment more certain, and much less sanguinary.

During this reign (1824), Lord Byron the poet died at Missolonghi, in Greece.

61. George IV. was succeeded (in 1830) by his brother, the Duke of Clarence, with the title of **William IV.** In about **William IV.** a month after his accession, a revolution took place **and reform.** in France, which caused the dethronement of Charles X. A widespread feeling of uneasiness and disaffection was felt in England, and the country was alarmed by numerous incendiary fires. For many years the subject of a reform of the representation of the people in the House of Commons had been much agitated, and it was now more loudly called for than ever before. On the meeting of the new Parliament, the Duke of Wellington, the prime-minister, unexpectedly expressed himself strongly against any reform; but the duke and his colleagues, not finding themselves supported by a majority of the House of Commons, resigned, and were succeeded by a Whig ministry, with Earl Grey at the head.

62. On the 1st of March, 1831, Lord John Russell, as the organ of the cabinet, brought into Parliament the first reform bill; but this bill, and also a second one, the ministry failed to carry through both Houses. But a third bill was, after a violent struggle, carried, and enacted into a law, in June, 1832. This important measure, which renders the House of Commons a body much more effectually representing the people, occupied the greater part of the first two years of the reign of William, to the exclusion of almost all other measures. The first Parliament elected under the new system assembled in January, 1833; and the reform of the representation was soon followed by the reform of the Irish Church, and the abolition of slavery in the British West Indies. William Wilberforce was the foremost champion of this last-named measure, by which eight hundred thousand slaves were set free (1834), and twenty million pounds were paid to their owners as compensation.

For a long time the poor-laws had worked great harm to society, by their encouragement of pauperism and their interference with honest industry. A commission was appointed in 1832, whose investigations led to the enactment of a law (1834) which established work-houses for the able-bodied poor, and a judicious system of dispensing relief to the infirm and helpless. The beneficial effects of this act were soon apparent in a great reduction of poor-rates, and in the improved condition of the poor.

In 1835 a much-needed reform took place in the local management of towns and municipalities. Their officers had been almost self-appointed. Funds were expended without being accounted for, the administration of justice had been neglected, and general corruption prevailed. A new law placed incorporated towns under the control of a mayor, aldermen and council, elected by resident tax-payers.

The criminal laws received the attention of the reform party. While convictions under those laws had been comparatively easy, the execution of the laws was attended with great un-

certainty ; and crime had long been on the increase. In 1824 more than a thousand persons were condemned to death, of whom only forty were executed. There were then Criminal laws. thirty-one offences punishable by death ; but, previous to 1837, that penalty was abolished for twenty-one of those crimes ; and in that year the convictions were reduced to less than one-half their previous number. It was found that the prevention of crime was not secured so effectually by the severity of law, as by the certainty of its execution.

In 1834 the charter of the East India Company was renewed, with important modifications.

Sir Walter Scott, the distinguished novelist and poet, whose name and genius have become indelibly associated with Scottish history, social life, and scenery, died during this reign, in 1832.

63. William IV. had been a sailor in his youth, and had the free and easy manners of that class. He was a hearty friend of reform, ruled with justice, and was beloved by Character of William IV. his people. His death occurred, at the age of seventy-two, in 1837.

CHAPTER VI.

THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK (PART II.).

From 1837 to the present time.

Victoria.

Edward VII.

VICTORIA, who came to the throne in 1837 at the age of eighteen years, was the daughter of the Duke of Kent, and a niece of the late king, William IV. She had Auspicious beginning. been carefully educated, was of pleasing manners, and of great amiability, and firmness of character. Her accession was the occasion of much rejoicing among her people, and gave promise of an auspicious reign ; which subsequent events have fulfilled. In 1840 she married her cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

2. The little kingdom of Hanover in Germany, since the time of George I., had been an appendage to England, and was under the same sovereign, though with an independent administration ; but, as the law of succession in Hanover does not allow females to occupy the throne, the union with Great Britain was dissolved upon the accession of Victoria, and this state became once more independent. Union with Hanover dissolved.

3. The youthful queen did not find her kingdom entirely peaceful and harmonious. In some of the colonies there was much dissatisfaction with the government ; and at home great discontent prevailed among the labor- Sources of discontent. ing classes on account of low wages, want of employment, and the high price of provisions. In the manufacturing districts

strikes were common among the operatives, and at one time fifty thousand people in Scotland were out of employment on that account; but the arrest of some of the ringleaders, who were intimidating new laborers, soon restored quiet and a renewal of business.

4. In 1838 a class of agitators for reform, called "Chartists," began to occupy a large share of public attention. In a document called by them the people's charter their principles were set forth under six heads: 1. Universal suffrage; 2. Vote by ballot; 3. Paid representatives in Parliament; 4. Equal electoral districts; 5. The abolition of the property qualification; and, 6. Annual parliaments. These subjects were widely discussed at mass meetings numerous attended; and in 1839 the charter, signed by a large number of people, was presented to Parliament. Its refusal by that body led to some scenes of riot and violence; but the government soon restored order.

5. Chartism was apparently thrust aside for several years by the Anti-Corn-Law League, — an organization formed in 1838 for the repeal of all duties on breadstuffs. Richard Cobden and John Bright, two of England's ablest statesmen, were zealous advocates for this measure; and after much agitation the repeal was passed in 1846, and carried fully into effect in 1849. The navigation laws passed in the time of Cromwell, and which were now considered a restriction upon trade, were repealed the same year.

6. Upon the occurrence of a revolution in France in 1848, chartism was revived for a time in Great Britain, and many threatening demonstrations were made throughout the country. These were successfully quelled by the government; and, after the presentation in Parliament of a monster petition in favor of the people's charter, the movement seemed to lose its organization, and soon passed from public notice.

7. In 1841, under the leadership of Daniel O'Connell, the sub-

ject of a repeal of the union between Ireland and Great Britain was extensively agitated. Mass meetings were held throughout Ireland, thrilling speeches were made, and great excitement prevailed. The government finally took measures to prevent these mass meetings of the people. O'Connell and some of his followers were tried, and convicted of sedition; but the House of Lords reversed the judgment, and they were set at liberty. The leaders of a similar agitation in 1848 were transported for life, some of whom escaped to the United States.

Separation
of Ireland
attempted.

8. One of the most beneficent influences upon social and domestic life at this time was the result of an extensive temperance reformation, which began in Ireland in 1841 under the direction of Father Mathew, an Irish priest. Its effect in relieving poverty and diminishing crime was most salutary. Numerous temperance societies named from Father Mathew were organized, and the movement extended to other countries.

Temperance
reform.

9. In 1843 more than a third of all the ministers of the Established Church of Scotland seceded, in order to free themselves from the interference of the civil courts in ecclesiastical matters. This movement caused much excitement, and resulted in the formation of what has since been known as the Free Church of Scotland.

Scottish Free
Church.

10. Ireland experienced one of the most terrible famines in modern times in consequence of the failure of the potato-crop in that country in 1846-47. Most shocking scenes of suffering and death by starvation were witnessed on all sides. The government generously ministered to the relief of the suffering; and a national vessel was sent from the United States, laden with supplies purchased by private contribution.

Famine in
Ireland.

11. A most notable event occurred in London in 1851, known as "The World's Fair," or exhibition of the industry of all nations. It took place in a mammoth building called "The

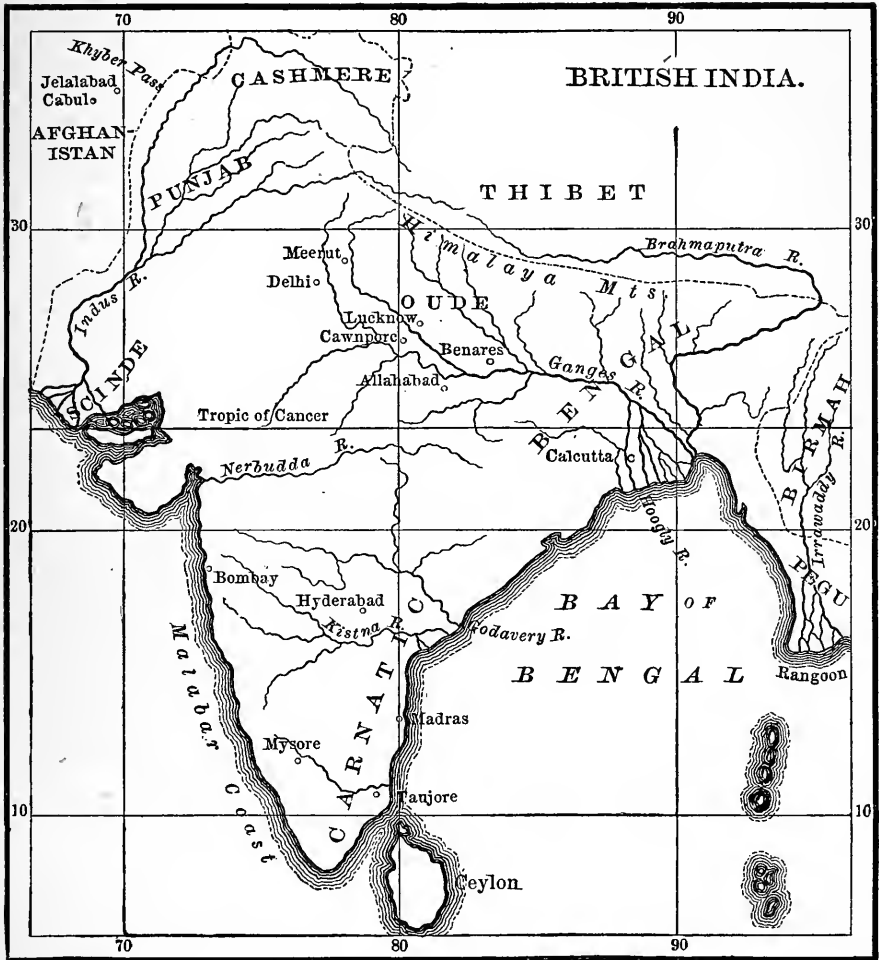
Crystal Palace," constructed mostly of iron and glass, and was participated in by nations in all parts of the globe. **World's fair.** This project originated with the prince-consort; and its influence upon the social and industrial interests of the world was so apparent, that it has since been imitated, with some improvements, by several countries.

12. Prince Albert, the husband of the queen, died in December, 1861, much lamented. He was a man of refined tastes, a friend of progress, and a benefactor to the poor and to all charitable institutions. To the queen he was a wise and judicious counsellor, and was greatly beloved by the people. **Death of Prince Albert.**

13. Several wars have taken place in the British Colonies and with foreign nations during the reign of the present sovereign, and there have also been some important changes and events in colonial administration. **Canadian rebellion.** Upper and Lower Canada had for some time been in a disturbed state; and in 1837 an insurrection broke out, which was put down after great alarm and some bloodshed. In 1840 the two provinces were united under a constitutional government.

14. The Afghan war was between 1838 and 1842. England undertook to support the Afghans against Persia, and finally to place on their throne a prince of a former reigning house, to maintain whose authority a small English force was left in Cabul. Violent opposition to the new rule sprang up. These troops, seeing their danger, attempted to cut their way to Jelalabad, and were nearly destroyed. A fresh English force, in turn, destroyed Cabul; but Afghanistan was abandoned. During this war, Scinde, a rich territory around the lower waters of the Indus, was annexed to British India by Sir Charles Napier. The Sikhs, living in the district called the Punjab, north of Scinde, invaded the British territories in 1845; and a war followed, which ended in the annexation of their country also to the British domain. These conquests secured to British India the whole peninsula of Hin- **Afghan war.** **Conquests in India.**

dostan. In 1852 a war with Birmah resulted in the acquisition of Puge; and in 1856 the kingdom of Oude, long under British protection, was formally annexed, on the ground of extreme misgovernment.



MAP OF INDIA.

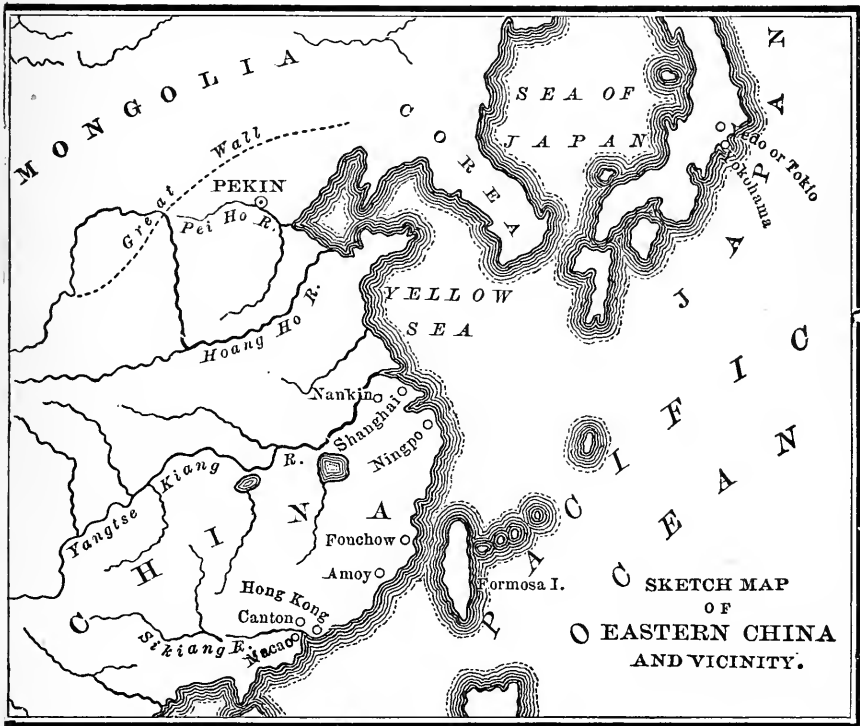
15. The English army in India is largely composed of sepoys, or native soldiers. Early in 1857 there were signs of a mutinous spirit in the Bengal division, which was by far Sepoy the largest, and contained many high-caste sepoys. rebellion. The government had resolved to arm the troops with Enfield

rifles, in the use of which greased cartridges were employed. A belief spread among the native troops that this was an attempt to make them give up their religion by compelling them to bite the fat of swine and cows: the use of the former being defilement to the Mohammedan; and of the latter, sacrilege to the Hindoo. Although the old cartridges were still used, the greatest excitement prevailed, and the discontent spread like wildfire.

16. The first outbreaks were quelled; but in May several regiments mutinied at Meerut, killed their English officers, and marched to Delhi, where the garrison joined them. The Europeans were massacred, and Delhi became the rallying-point of the rebellion. Several thousand sepoy also revolted at Cawnpore, and placed themselves under the Nana-Sahib. Few native regiments could be trusted; and the European troops were too few to check the mutiny, which now spread with frightful rapidity. The scenes at Delhi were repeated at Benares, Allahabad, Futtehpore, and all over Oude, where many Bengal sepoy had been recruited. The rebels gradually gathered around Lucknow, and began to besiege the Europeans there about July 1.

17. The first movements of the English were against Delhi. The memorable siege of this city lasted from June till September, and it was taken only after the most desperate fighting within as well as without the walls. Mean-
 Memorable sieges. time Gen. Havelock moved with a small force from Allahabad towards Cawnpore, where a few English were besieged by the Nana-Sahib, who, on the approach of Havelock, murdered them all with horrible atrocities. He, after defeating the Nana in several battles, marched to relieve Lucknow, where a garrison of less than a thousand was holding out against ten thousand rebels. He fought his way into the city with dreadful loss, and staid with the besieged until November, when Sir Colin Campbell relieved them, and withdrew his troops to Cawnpore, which, after a great battle with the Nana-Sahib, was made a centre of

operations against Oude. Troops had now arrived from England, and the rebels were followed up with great vigor. Early in 1859 the revolt was at an end. The horrible outrages on men, women, and children, and the relentless punishment of their perpetrators, have no parallel in modern history. One of the most important results of the mutiny was the transfer by Parliament of the government of India from the East-India Company to the British Queen, the company remaining simply a commercial corporation.



MAP OF CHINA.

18. The principal military operations of the British with China, in the present reign, have originated mainly in commercial difficulties. The importation of opium was forbidden by the Chinese Government ; but English merchants smuggled the drug over the frontier. Its seizure led to a war, by which China was compelled (1842) to cede Hong

War with
China.

Kong, and pay twenty-one million dollars to Great Britain, and to open five seaports to British commerce. In 1857 the Chinese were charged with having broken their treaties; but it was not until the sepoy rebellion in India was quelled, that, some massacres having occurred in Chinese waters, France and England formed an alliance against the aggressors. They captured Canton, and negotiations were begun; but in 1859 the war was renewed. The allies were at first repulsed on the Pei Ho River; but the next year the forts and Tien-tsin were taken; and the Chinese, being defeated near Pekin, came to terms, and this inglorious war was ended by a commercial treaty.

19. Since the time of Napoleon, a compact has existed among the five great powers of Europe — England, France, The balance of power. Prussia, Russia, and Austria — to preserve what is called the balance of power; that is, ostensibly to protect the smaller states against the encroachments of the larger ones, and to prevent any one state or sovereign from exercising an undue influence in the affairs of other states. In pursuance of this policy, England has twice, during the present reign, been drawn into collision with the Eastern powers.

20. In 1840 Mehemet-Ali (*Mähemet Ah'le*), Pacha or Viceroy of Egypt, revolted against the Turkish Government, and also Rebellion in Egypt. attempted, with some success, to get possession of Syria. France remained neutral upon the subject, but was suspected of sympathizing with Mehemet, either for the purpose of placing him upon the Turkish throne, to which Abdul-Medjid had just succeeded at the age of seventeen years, or to lessen Turkish influence by making Egypt and Syria an independent kingdom. The other allies interfered. A fleet, under the command of Sir Charles Napier, soon captured Acre, the key of Syria, and Beyroot, and then made its appearance in the harbor of Alexandria. A treaty soon followed with Mehemet, making the viceroyalty of Egypt hereditary in his family; since which Egypt has been, in all respects except the name, an independent state.

21. The other interference in the affairs of the Eastern powers was in the Crimean war, which began in 1853. Russia had demanded to be named protector of the Greek Christians in the Turkish Empire. By the advice of England and France, this demand was refused; and the



TO ILLUSTRATE CRIMEAN WAR. GREECE IN 1827, AND THE ALLIED FLEET AT ALEXANDRIA IN 1840.

Czar at once occupied the Danubian principalities where these Christians lived. The Russians, failing to take Silistria, were defeated on the Danube, and withdrew from Turkish territory. Meantime the allied fleets blockaded the Russian fleet in the harbor of Sebastopol, in the Crimea; and the reduction

of this strongly-fortified city became the main purpose of the allies, whom Sardinia now joined. In the course of this siege were fought the battles of Alma, of Balaklava (where the "six hundred" made their famous charge), of Inkerman, and of the Tchernaya; and furious assaults were made on the Russian works, especially upon the battery of the Malakoff, which was captured by the French, and that of the Redan, upon which an attempt of the English failed. After sustaining a siege of eleven months, Sebastopol was evacuated Sept. 9, 1855, and a treaty of peace was signed in the following year. Among other conditions, Russia gave up her claim to protect the Christians in the Turkish Empire, and agreed to limit her naval power on the Black Sea. This last condition was quietly set aside some years later when France was involved in war with Germany. The losses to all parties in this war were immense. The allies suffered terribly from disease; and it was by her efforts to improve the hospital service, and relieve the want of the soldiers in the Crimea, that Florence Nightingale became so famous. She visited hospital and camp, and like an angel of mercy, everywhere ministered to the sick, the wounded and the dying; one old soldier remarking, that, owing to the large number in the hospital, all could not be spoken to or receive a recognition from her, "yet," said he, "we could kiss her shadow as it fell, and lay our heads on our pillows content."

22. Among the public enactments and leading measures of Victoria's reign, there are some which reflect great credit upon the government and leading statesmen by whom they were initiated and carried out. In 1840 the penny-postage bill was passed, reducing the rates on letters, which had previously been very high, to one penny for all distances, and establishing also the money-order system. This measure was at once felt to be a public convenience in business and social life, and a relief from a heavy tax on correspondence.

Reform
measures.

The factory system, following the great inventions in machinery in the eighteenth century (p. 181), had brought with it many evils: long hours, child labor, and unhealthy conditions of work. Little children, eight, and some even six years of age, were kept at work from twelve to fourteen hours a day in poorly ventilated cotton factories, subject to further danger from unprotected machinery. The conditions in the mines were even worse. "Little girls of six and seven years of age made ten to twelve trips a day up the steep ladders to the surface, carrying half a hundred weight of coal in wooden buckets on their backs at each journey." Women drew cars of coal along passage-ways less than three feet high. A long series of reform acts extending over the nineteenth century, but especially numerous since 1840, have resulted in the total exclusion of young children from working in factories, in shortening the hours of labor, and in the introduction of numerous appliances for the safety of the workmen.

Factory
reforms.

In 1866 a proposal to extend the right to vote had been discussed in Parliament, but the measure had been dropped and the ministry defeated. The working classes outside of Parliament, however, began such an agitation that Disraeli, the Conservative leader in the new House of Commons, brought in a new bill which, after many amendments of a democratic character, became a law. The qualifications for voting were considerably reduced, chiefly in the towns, so that the working classes obtained a voice in the management of national affairs. In 1868 similar changes were made for Scotland and Ireland. Two other acts should be noticed in connection with this reform. In 1870 an Education Act was passed to increase the number of elementary schools, thus making it possible (in 1876 it became compulsory), for every child to be taught the elements of a common school education. In 1872 the Ballot Act, which provided for a secret ballot while voting, served to protect the workingman who voted contrary to the wishes or interests of his employer.

Parliamentary reform
1867.

23. Although the Conservative party had passed the reform act, the first Parliament elected under it contained a Liberal majority, and William Ewarts Gladstone became Prime Minister. Gladstone
Prime Min-
ister. Already nearly thirty years in public life, he had won distinction for his grasp of financial problems, and for over twenty years he was the foremost man in English political life. One of the first acts of his ministry was to pass a bill disestablishing the Protestant church in Ireland. The Established Church was supported by public taxes, although a large majority of the Irish were Catholics. The law, though violently opposed, went into effect in 1870, and the support of religion is now a voluntary matter among all sects.

Gladstone then turned his attention to the Irish land question. A large part of the land in Ireland was owned by Englishmen who remained away from the country and left the management of their estates to middlemen. As agriculture was the chief occupation of the people, competition for farms was strong, and rents were high. Moreover, improvements were made at the tenant's expense, and in many cases he might be turned out on six months' notice. Many tenants were years behind with their rent, and evictions were frequent. The land act of 1870 provided that, under certain conditions, the landlord must compensate the tenant for improvements made by him, and must make a payment to the tenant if he was turned out of his farm for any reason except non-payment of rent. But little good, however, was accomplished.

A feeling was growing up that the government was pushing reform too fast; and the management of foreign affairs still further lessened its popularity. Russia's
Geneva
Award. refusal to submit any longer to the restrictions imposed upon her naval power in the Black Sea (p. 198) had met with no real resistance by the English government, and the award of the Geneva Tribunal was thought to be very excessive. During the Civil War in the United States,

American commerce suffered extensively from privateers built and fitted out in English ports. At the close of the war the United States government claimed of Great Britain damages for these depredations, on the ground that no efforts were made to prevent the privateers leaving British ports. These claims were known as the Alabama Claims, from the name of one of the privateers. After some negotiations at Washington between the two governments, the matter was referred to a board of arbitration composed of representatives from five different nations; viz., the United States, Great Britain, Italy, Brazil, and Switzerland. This board met at Geneva in 1872 and awarded to the United States the sum of fifteen million dollars, which was promptly paid by the British Government.

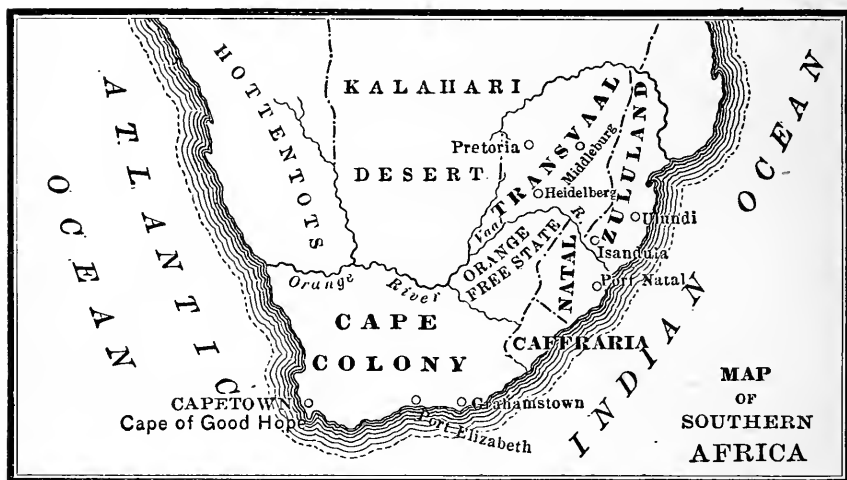
24. In 1874 the Gladstone ministry came to an end, and the Conservative party, under Mr. Disraeli (later, Lord Beaconsfield) held office for six years. Its greatest activity was in foreign affairs. The atrocities of the Turkish government led, in 1878, to a war with Russia, whose success threatened the existence of the Turkish empire in Europe. England prepared to take an active part when Russia concluded a treaty with the Turks. The results were not satisfactory to England, and, after a period of great excitement bordering upon war, a congress of all the powers was held at Berlin. By a secret treaty, made a few weeks prior to the meeting of the Congress, England had received the island of Cyprus from Turkey, in return guaranteeing to protect the Turkish possessions in Asia. Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro were made independent of Turkish rule; and Bulgaria, which Russia had aimed to bring under her influence, was reduced in size by setting off a portion south of the Balkan mountains, known as East Roumelia. Bulgaria, thus reduced, became a self-governing principality under the suzerainty of the Sultan. Russia was thus checked in her attempt to secure a hold in the

Disraeli
Prime
Minister.

Balkan peninsula, but retaliated by stirring up trouble in Afghanistan, thus threatening England's Indian possession. The outbreak was finally put down by the efforts of General Roberts, whose famous march to Kandahar entirely dispersed the Afghan army.

In South Africa the government's aggressive policy was also shown. The original settlements had been made by the Dutch, but had passed under English control. Many of the Dutch farmers, disliking the English government, had migrated or "trekked" into the interior, finally establishing the two independent republics, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State. To secure better protection against the natives, the English gov-

South
African
troubles.



ernment had attempted to form a confederation and had annexed the Transvaal. Not only was an unwilling people thus brought under English control, but England became involved in a war with the fierce native tribe of Zulus, which, after some reverses, was brought to a successful close by the victory at Ulundi. The hostility of the Boers, as the native Dutch were called, still remained, and finally in December, 1880, broke out into open revolt. The English met with sev-

eral defeats, notably at Majuba Hill in February, 1881; and Gladstone, who had just come into power again, not desiring to insist on further control, granted the Boers full self-government with a vague reservation of English suzerainty in foreign relations.

The imperial policy of the Beaconsfield ministry had led to interference in the affairs of Egypt. In 1875 Disraeli had startled the world by the sudden announcement that the English government had purchased the ^{Egypt.} shares of the Khedive, or ruler of Egypt, in the Suez Canal, thus checking any possible attempt of France to control a waterway of such importance to England's Indian possessions. The extravagance of the Khedive at last led to his deposition and the establishment of a government under the joint control of France and England. In 1882, however, an uprising of the natives under Arabi Pasha had, by the withdrawal of France, been put down by England alone. At the same time came news of a rebellion in the Soudan province, under a religious leader known as the Mahdi. The Gladstone ministry made a feeble attempt to withdraw the English garrison at Khartoum. The expedition was a failure, the garrison was massacred, and Gen. Gordon was killed.

Not until 1898 was English authority in the Soudan province firmly established, through the efforts of a joint English and Egyptian force under Sir Herbert Kitchener.

25. The Act of 1870 had failed to relieve the distressed condition of the Irish peasantry. They were still largely in arrears of rent; and evictions, followed in retaliation by murders, and other crimes were common. ^{Irish land question.} In 1879 the evictions numbered 2,267. In 1880 the Liberal party under Gladstone had come into power, and, while repressing crime in Ireland with severe measures, sought to afford some relief to the peasantry.

The Act of 1881 adopted substantially the demands of the Irish Land League: fair rent, fixity of tenure, free sale. A

Land Court was established in Ireland to fix the rent at the request of either tenant or landlord; the rent, The three F's. when thus determined, is to remain for fifteen years; and the tenant has the right to sell his holding to any solvent purchaser.

26. The Irish representatives in Parliament had hitherto played an insignificant part. But about 1875 a new leader appeared. Charles Stuart Parnell, though a Home rule party. Protestant of English parentage, had been brought up in Ireland and was thoroughly devoted to the Irish cause. His policy in Parliament was, briefly, obstruction; that is, all business was to be impeded by long speeches, motions to adjourn and other systematic devices, until the Irish question was settled. This new Home Rule Party, allied with the Irish Land League and aided financially by Irish patriots in America, now began a struggle with the English government. The House of Commons was compelled to adopt a new rule for closing debate, and the Government at length arrested Parnell and other leaders, and dissolved the Land League. In a few months, however, the leaders were released. A small, but very violent party, rejecting the policy of legal resistance, continued to resort to murder and dynamiting.

27. The Reform Act of 1832 (p. 187) had extended the right to vote to the upper middle class. The Act of 1867 Electoral reform act. had largely increased the number of voters, particularly in the boroughs. All parties felt that a further reform was needed to equalize the conditions in the boroughs and country districts. By the Acts of 1884-5, the number of members of the House of Commons was increased to six hundred and seventy, and the requirements for the right to vote in counties were reduced, admitting the agricultural laboring class.

28. The Parliament elected in 1885 contained three hundred and thirty-three Liberals, two hundred and fifty-

one Conservatives, and eighty-six Irish Home Rulers. Parnell's party thus held the balance of power. Soon after the results were known, Gladstone announced that he favored the policy of granting Home Rule; and on coming into office in 1886 immediately introduced, as his leading measure, a bill to establish Home Rule in Ireland by creating an Irish Parliament to sit in Dublin. This bill aroused the most violent opposition, not only in England, but also in the northern part of Ireland, where the Protestants, organized in secret lodges known as Orangemen, prepared to fight rather than submit to the rule of an Irish Parliament. Many of Mr. Gladstone's own party, the Liberal, refused to follow him, notably Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Bright; and the seceders became known as the Liberal-Unionists. After bitter discussion in the Commons and in the newspapers, the bill was defeated by a vote of 341 to 311. Gladstone dissolved Parliament and appealed to the people. The result was an overwhelming defeat for his party: in the new Parliament the opponents of Home Rule had a majority of over one hundred. The Gladstone ministry resigned and Lord Salisbury, with a Conservative ministry supported by the Liberal-Unionists, governed for the next six years (1886-92).

Gladstone's
conversion to
Home Rule.

Although the Land Act of 1881 (p. 203) had reduced rents about twenty-five per cent, it had not put an end to disorders. To meet these frequent outbreaks an act was passed by Parliament dispensing, in certain cases, with juries and giving the authorities greater powers in dealing with disorders. On the other hand, the ministry sought to improve the condition of the Irish peasant. Earlier attempts to aid the tenants in buying their holdings had been partially successful, and in 1891 a general Land Purchase Act was passed. By the provisions of this act, if a landlord is willing to sell, the tenant may borrow of the Government the entire amount (which must not exceed twenty times, and in practice is only seventeen times the annual rent); this loan he repays on easy terms: during each of the first five years he pays the Govern-

ment $4\frac{3}{4}$ per cent of the purchase price, and for the next forty-four years, 4 per cent ; at the end of forty-nine years he is the absolute owner of his little farm. This act has worked very successfully, and riots and crimes growing out of the land question have almost ceased.

During the years 1886–1892 the Liberal party had been gradually regaining its lost ground, and in the general election of 1892 Gladstone once more came into power, but with a small majority (40). In February, 1893, he introduced a second Home Rule bill. Unlike the previous bill, it provided for Irish representation in the parliament of Great Britain, but without a vote on purely English or Scotch measures. The Irish Parliament was to consist of two Houses (the former bill had provided for one only). After long and bitter debate, the bill passed the House of Commons, but was defeated in the House of Lords by a vote of 419 to 41. Soon after, Gladstone resigned and was succeeded by Lord Roseberry as Prime Minister. But in the Election of 1895 the Liberals were defeated, and Lord Salisbury again returned to power as the head of the Conservatives. A split had occurred in the Irish party in Parliament in 1891, and a small majority had abandoned Mr. Parnell and chosen Mr. Justin McCarthy as leader. This division and Mr. Gladstone's retirement resulted in the abandonment of Home Rule as an active political question.

29. On June 22, 1897, Queen Victoria had ruled personally and continuously for sixty years, a longer period than any previous sovereign. The occasion was very appropriately celebrated as a Diamond Jubilee. Congratulatory addresses were received from the rulers of all the civilized countries in the world, representatives were present from all parts of the British Empire and from many other countries, and special religious services were held at Windsor Castle, St. Paul's Cathedral, and Westminster Abbey. A grand procession on June 22, and

The
Diamond
Jubilee.

a magnificent military and naval display were among the most impressive of the public ceremonies.

30. Some parts of British India are subject to famines, owing to the great variations in the amount of rainfall. In one district showers occur only at intervals of The Indian Famine. years, while on the mountains and highlands the annual rainfall is sometimes over 400 inches. The failure of the fall and winter rains in 1899-1900 caused one of the most destructive famines that have visited India under British rule. Nearly 50,000,000 people were affected, 6,000,000 of whom were for weeks entirely dependent on government aid. Crops to the value of \$250,000,000 were destroyed, and millions of cattle perished; but the great exertions of the government prevented a corresponding loss of human beings.

31. Australia, which, on account of its vast size, has been called a Continent, is the largest island in the world, having an area about equal to that of the United States, omitting Alaska and the insular possessions. Its The Australian Commonwealth. political divisions are: New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, and Tasmania, an island with an area of more than 25,000 square miles, near the south coast of the continent. Some of these states were British penal colonies during the early part of the nineteenth century.

After several years of deliberation and discussion of the subject of a union of the colonies, an Act of Parliament for that purpose was obtained, which went into effect January 1, 1901, on which date the Commonwealth of Australia was formally inaugurated, and the Earl of Hopetoun was appointed Governor-General by the Queen. The first elections were held in April, and the Parliament was opened May 9th following, by the Duke of Cornwall and York, eldest son of Edward VII.

The Constitution of the Commonwealth resembles somewhat the type of that of the United States. The legislative body consists of a senate of six members from each state, elected by popular vote for a term of six years, and a house of representatives, apportioned according to population, elected in the same manner, for a term of not more than three years. The executive officer, called a Governor-General, is appointed by the crown.

32. The closing years of the nineteenth century witnessed a general scramble among the powers of Europe, first, for concessions of territory on the coast of China, then for rights to build railroads and to develop mines. It was the "battle of concessions," as Lord Salisbury termed it.

The Boxer
uprising in
China.

This practice occasioned, especially among the lower class of natives, a feeling of jealousy toward foreigners, and to the formation of an anti-foreign party — a party opposed to change and reform; and as the Christians in the Empire are generally looked upon as favorable to reform, the party also became an anti-Christian party. With this party many native officials were well known to be in full and practical sympathy.

The Emperor was completely under the power of the Dowager Empress, his aunt, who had been regent for many years, and whose well-known anti-foreign sympathies and practices were considered of no good omen to the peace of the empire.

During the winter months of 1900 there was a general feeling of unrest and of approaching calamity in the country, and especially in northern China. A secret organization, called the Boxers, hostile to foreign influences in China, now became active with demonstrations of threatening and violence, and numerous Chinese Catholics, Protestant missionaries, and native converts were brutally murdered.

The foreign ministers protested, and sent a joint note to

the authorities, May 21, 1900, demanding the suppression of the Boxers and the attacks on foreign residents. Nominal compliance was made with these demands, but the orders given were so equivocal and contradictory, that they were never obeyed, and probably were never intended to be.

The Boxer movement spread rapidly, and soon the Europeans in Peking were besieged in the legation quarter. An attempt was made by a force of allies, in June, to relieve them, but it was unsuccessful; and not until Aug. 14 did the rescuing army reach the Chinese capital.

The Boxer uprising was quickly suppressed, and then began a tedious period of negotiation by the European powers and Japan, with the Chinese commissioners, foremost of whom was Li Hung Chang. A heavy indemnity, later reduced through the efforts of the United States, was imposed upon China; the forts and other military obstacles between the sea and Peking were to be removed; and provision was made for better defences for the legation in that city. The leaders of the Boxers were executed and other offenders suffered imprisonment or banishment.

33. After the discovery of rich gold fields in the Transvaal, in 1884, there was a large immigration of foreigners of different nationalities who became locally known as Uitlanders (outsiders). Johannesburg soon became the center of the gold fields and of a large population, numbering in the neighborhood of 100,000, the greater part of whom were deprived of the right to vote, although they were heavily taxed for public purposes. The Uitlanders clamored for reform and equal rights. The Boers declared that the immediate enfranchisement of all the Uitlanders would swamp the present voters and might result in a complete change of government.

South
African
war.

In the closing weeks of 1895 an event occurred that added greatly to the excitement and uneasiness in the South African Republic. Dr. Jameson, an administrator of the

"South African Company," an organization formed by Cecil Rhodes and chartered by the British government for commercial purposes, collected and armed a body of about 700 men, and upon an invitation of a body of Uitlanders known as the National Union of Reformers, marched from British Bechuanaland, a protectorate on the west, into the Transvaal towards Johannesburg. President Kruger immediately gave orders, from Pretoria, for them to be stopped by force of arms. Dr. Jameson, after losing many of his men and finding himself surrounded by the Boers, surrendered January 2d, and the raiders were marched off to prison.

Some of the leaders were tried in England for high treason, and four were sentenced to death, the sentence being afterwards changed to a heavy fine. Dr. Jameson and his companions were sentenced to imprisonment for some 15 months, others for a less time. Many of the Reform Committee were tried, at Pretoria, for expressed sympathy with the raid, and released only upon payment of fines.

The raid did not put an end to the expression of grievances of the Reform party, nor to the annoyance and trouble of the British government, in their attempts to find a remedy for these grievances. The withholding of the right to vote from the Uitlanders finally led to a crisis. After a tiresome consideration and rejection of various propositions by each party, the South African government submitted an ultimatum, Oct. 9, 1899. The reply of the British Government was, "The conditions of the ultimatum were such that they could not be discussed."

War ensued at once, beginning with the seizure, Oct. 11, of a railway train by the Boer forces, and the next day the British colony of Natal, on the southeast coast was invaded. In 1897 President Kruger of the Transvaal, and President Steyn of the Orange Free State, had made a treaty by which it was agreed that the two states should assist each other, in case either was attacked. Accordingly, the Orange Free State cast in its lot at once with the Transvaal, and

joined in the first important act of the war, the invasion of Natal.

The English Government was not prepared for actual war, and greatly underestimated the strength and fighting qualities of the Boers. The disasters of the early months of the war, however, brought forward the needed commanders, notably Lord Roberts as field-marshal and Lord Kitchener. The colonies, especially Canada and Australia, responded most loyally. In spite of losses in battle, and especially by diseases, the British overran and annexed the Orange Free State and captured Johannesburg and Pretoria. The Boers then developed under General De Wet, the "Fox," their remarkable guerilla warfare, which the British met with their system of block-houses and concentration camps.

The Boers' hopes of foreign intervention were not realized, and President McKinley's tender of the friendly offices of the United States was refused by the English Government. In April, 1902, consideration of terms of peace began, and the war ended on May 31, 1902, after a duration of two years and eight months. The principal conditions were as follows:—

The complete supremacy of the English Government is acknowledged.

Military government is to be withdrawn as soon as possible, and self-government substituted.

There is to be no tax on the Transvaal to pay the cost of the war, and England gives fifteen million dollars towards restocking the Boer farms.

Very fair treatment is accorded the Boer prisoners and to the rebels of other South African colonies.

Perhaps the most remarkable feature of the return of peace is the general feeling of good-will by the former combatants towards each other, and the disposition on the part of the Boers to become good subjects of the British Empire.

At the beginning of the War President Kruger had declared that the Boers would be subdued only at a cost which would "stagger humanity." The number of troops sent to South Africa by England exceeded 300,000, and the war cost in money nearly \$900,000,000. The British lost by death in Africa, however, less than 20,000, while 60,000 more were sent home invalids from wounds or disease.

34. On Tuesday, Jan. 22, 1901, the Queen died, at the age of eighty-one years. Victoria will be known in history as the "Good Queen." She was a woman of great ability and loveliness of character, joined to a marked firmness of purpose. During her long reign of sixty-three years and seven months she had seen fifteen successive parliaments elected, and had been advised by twenty different ministries. She had seen in office ten Prime ministers, five Archbishops of Canterbury, and six of York, and several changes in every Bishopric.

Parliament was hastily summoned on January 23, to take the oath of allegiance to the new sovereign, Edward VII.¹

On February 14 the King opened the regular session of Parliament, riding to Westminster in the state carriage built in 1761. The new King was a great popular favorite, and had shown great tact in the performance of the many social duties that had devolved upon him as Prince of Wales.

The coronation ceremonies were arranged for June 26, 1902; but a few days before that date the whole world was startled by the news that the King's critical illness made a postponement necessary. A successful operation, however, soon allayed the people's fears, and on August 9, the King was crowned in Westminster Abbey by the venerable Archbishop of Canterbury.

¹ "The official title of the king is, Edward VII, by the grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India."

35. On September 18, 19, and 20, 1901, the one thousandth anniversary of the death of King Alfred (p. 22) was commemorated in the famous old city of Winchester. Lectures and addresses were delivered by notables of church and state, and an ideal statue of Alfred, holding aloft an inverted sword suggesting a cross, was unveiled by Lord Roseberry, who delivered an able address. Alfred was characterized as the "highest type of kingship, the highest type of Englishman, and a complete man."

The King
Alfred
Millenary.

36. The reign of Victoria, covering nearly two-thirds of the nineteenth century, the age of steel and electricity, is notable for the remarkable progress in all lines of work, political, social, and economic. In the industrial world, England has taken a leading part, while her supremacy in the merchant marine is unquestioned. The population of Great Britain and Ireland has increased to 41,000,000 (p. 185), while that of the entire Empire numbers nearly 400,000,000. By the extension of the right to vote by legislative acts of 1867 and 1884, the government of England has become practically a democracy; while her relations with the dependencies "beyond the seas," in a critical condition in 1837 (p. 192) have been put on a satisfactory and stable basis, as was shown by their loyalty in the recent South African War. Realizing the importance of popular education to industrial supremacy, the present Prime Minister, Mr. Balfour, who succeeded Lord Salisbury in 1902, has recently carried through Parliament a new Educational Act, increasing government aid to the schools, from which great benefits are expected; while the results of the late Cecil Rhodes' bequest for scholarships in English universities for American students of proven ability, will be watched with great interest for its influence on the life and thought of both English and American students.

Summary.

During the reign of Victoria many names have been added

to the already long list of eminent writers and thinkers: Tennyson, Browning, and Morris in poetry; Macaulay, Lingard, Dickens, Thackeray, George Eliot, Ruskin, Carlyle, and Stevenson in imaginative and descriptive prose; and Huxley, Darwin, and Spencer in science.

Finally, not least among the achievements of the "Good Queen's" reign is the better feeling between the people of the United States and of England, a result in large measure due to her personal influence and example.

In 1903, after long conference between the Irish leaders, the landlords, and the Government, a new Land Act was passed, by which, through the aid of the Government, the occupiers will ultimately become the owners of their lands. On all sides this act is conceded to end the Irish land question.



PARLIAMENT HOUSE

A. — Topics for Outside Reading.

1. Development of cabinet government under Sir Robert Walpole.

GARDINER, III., 712-18. MONTAGUE, 163-73. "Burlesque on Walpole," COLBY, No. 90. See GARDINER, III., 733-6, for illustrations of election scenes. For parliamentary corruption common during the 18th century, KENDALL, No. 105.

2. The struggle for colonial possessions in America and India.

GARDINER, III., 747-56, 766 (America), 758-64 (India). GREEN, 745-57 (on Pitt, 748-53). COLBY, No. 94 (Plassey), 95 (Wolfe at Quebec), 96 (Pitt). CREIGHTON, "Stories," XLVIII. (Clive). KENDALL, Nos. 117, 118.

3. George III's attempt to re-establish personal government: opposition of the old Whigs, of John Wilkes, and of the American colonies.

GARDINER, III., 767-83, 799-801, 806-8. GREEN, 761-78, 788-91. MONTAGUE, 174-84. COLBY, No. 97 (Wilkes and the "North Briton"), No. 99 (Burke on conciliation with America). KENDALL, Nos. 107, 119, 120, 121. COMAN and BATES, 363-5.

4. The industrial revolution of the 18th century.

GARDINER, III., 813-18. GREEN, 791-2. CREIGHTON, "Social History," Ch. VIII. MONTAGUE, 191-3. CHEYNEY, "Industrial and Social History."

5. England and the French Revolution.

GARDINER, III., 819-23, 824-29. GREEN, 798-806. KENDALL, No. 123 (Burke on the Revolution), No. 124 (Birmingham riots), No. 125 (Fox). COLBY, No. 104.

6. England after the struggle with Napoleon: economic distress; renewed demands for reform.

GARDINER, III., 875-80, 884-90. CREIGHTON, "Social History," 119-24. COLBY, No. 113 ("Peterloo").

7. Catholic emancipation and Daniel O'Connell.

KENDALL, No. 128. COLBY, No. 115. GARDINER, III., 894-6. MONTAGUE, 195-8.

8. Parliamentary reform: the act of 1832.

MCCARTHY, "Epoch of Reform." MONTAGUE, 203-8. GARDINER, III., 900-5. COLBY, Nos. 116, 117. KENDALL, Nos. 129, 130.

9. The Canadian rebellion, 1837.

MCCARTHY, "Our Own Times," I., 36-43, 56-7. GARDINER, III., 914-6, 967.

10. Chartism.

MCCARTHY, "Our Own Times," I., 78-88, 292-302; "Epoch of Reform," 188-91. GARDINER, III., 922-4, 934-6. KENDALL, No. 131. COMAN and BATES, 396-400.

11. Factory and mine reforms.

CHEYNEY, "Industrial and Social History." GARDINER, III., 911, 927. MCCARTHY, "Epoch of Reform," 91-4. CREIGHTON, "Social England," 124, 129. KENDALL, No. 134. COMAN and BATES, 400.

12. Repeal of the corn laws.

MCCARTHY, "Our Own Times," I., Chs. XIV., XV., 270-3; "Epoch of Reform," Ch. XII. GARDINER, III., 875, 924, 930-1. KENDALL, Nos. 135-7. COMAN and BATES, 406.

13. The Crimean War, 1854-6.

MCCARTHY, "Our Own Times," I., 435-61, 474-504, 514-24. GARDINER, III., 943-8. KENDALL, Nos. 140-2.

14. The reform act of 1867.

McCARTHY, "Our Own Times," II., Ch. LII. GARDINER, III., 961. MONTAGUE, 208-10.

15. The Congress of Berlin and the Eastern question.

McCARTHY, "Our Own Times," II., Chs. LXIV., LXV.

16. The English in Egypt.

McCARTHY, "Our Own Times," III., Ch. VI., 134-5. KENDALL, No. 149.

17. Irish affairs.

McCARTHY, II., Ch. LVII., 469 (Irish Church), 471-9; III., 59-60 (Land Act of 1870), 63-73 (Parnell), 119-28 (Obstruction in Parliament); Ch. X. (Gladstone's first Home Rule Bill, 1886); Ch. XII. ("Parnellism and Crime"), 286-95 (the second Home Rule Bill, 1893). KENDALL, Nos. 132, 133.

18. South African troubles.

McCARTHY, III., 360-73, Ch. XXIV. On Kitchener, see KENDALL, No. 148.

B. — Topics for Special Reports.

1. The religious revival under the Methodists.

GARDINER, III., 745-6. KENDALL, No. 113. COLBY, No. 91. GREEN, 735-41.

2. John Howard and prison reform.

GREEN, 740. COLBY, No. 100.

3. Union of Great Britain and Ireland.

MONTAGUE, 186-8. GARDINER, III., 831-4, 840-2. For a view of Ireland in the 18th century, read KENDALL, No. 111.

4. Write a paper on the career of each of the following:
Pitt the Younger; Burke; Fox.

5. The abolition of the slave trade and of slavery in the colonies.
6. The new poor law of 1834.
7. Postal reform.
McCARTHY, I., 63-70; "Epoch of Reform," 149-54.
8. Rise of trade-unions.
9. England and the Civil War in America.
10. The reform act of 1884.
MONTAGUE, 210.
11. The Manchester ship canal.

C. — Map Work.

1. The possessions of England, France, and Spain in North America (*a*) in 1750, (*b*) in 1763, (*c*) in 1783.
2. Locate Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Plassey.
3. Napoleon's empire at its greatest extent. Locate Trafalgar, Waterloo.
4. The British possessions in Africa, 1904.
5. On an outline map of the world, color the territory comprising the British Empire.

THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT.

THE government of Great Britain is of that form usually known as a limited monarchy. The sovereign is hereditary; and, when there is no direct male heir, a female may succeed to the throne, and she takes the title of queen-regnant. The wife of a king is called queen-consort; the widow of a king, queen-dowager; and the mother of a sovereign upon the throne, queen-mother

The power of the sovereign is limited by constitutional restrictions. While the crown can declare war, the action of Parliament is necessary to raise money and men to carry it on. But the sovereign has full power to assemble or to dismiss Parliament, coin money (though not to fix or change its value), to receive and send ambassadors, to grant pardons, to confer titles of nobility, to appoint judges and magistrates, to issue and cancel commissions in the army and navy, to sign or veto acts passed by Parliament, and to nominate bishops, &c.

The power of the sovereign is not exercised personally, but through a ministry composed of leading officials, the most important of whom are the following: The first Lord of the Treasury, called also Premier or Prime-Minister; Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord Chancellor; President of the Council; Lord Privy-Seal; Home Secretary; Foreign Secretary; Secretary for the Colonies; Secretary of War; Secretary for India; First Lord of the Admiralty; President of the Board of Trade; and President of the Board of Works.

The ministry is responsible for the acts of the government; and hence the saying, that the king can do no wrong. The members of the ministry usually tender their resignations when any of their important measures fail to receive the support of the House of

Commons. When a new ministry is to be formed, the sovereign appoints the premier, and he names his associates. Although the ministry has long been regarded as an important branch of the government in the administration of public affairs, it exists as the result of custom only, never having been created, nor recognized by law ; and no official record of its proceedings is kept.

The legislative department of the government is called Parliament, and is composed of two houses, — Lords and Commons.

The House of Lords, or Peers, at present consists of nearly six hundred members, and is composed of English hereditary and titled peers, English archbishops and bishops, and Scotch and Irish peers elected by their own order. Peers, or lords, are often created by the sovereign for distinguished services, or merit.

The House of Commons is elective, its members representing counties, cities, boroughs, and some of the universities. The present number of members is six hundred and seventy.

About one-sixth of the population are electors.

All bills for raising money, or which directly affect the people, must originate in the House of Commons.

No Parliament can exist more than seven years ; and, whenever its dissolution takes place, a new one must be called within three years.

Many of the colonies and other dependencies of the empire have parliaments of their own for the management of their local affairs.

This is especially true of the Dominion of Canada and the Commonwealth of Australia.

THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

THE combined area of the British Empire is estimated at more than eleven million square miles and its population three hundred and ninety-six millions. The following are some of the most important of the States and dependencies that belong to it.

IN EUROPE.

The United Kingdom of **Great Britain and Ireland**, with the adjacent islands, including the Shetlands, Hebrides, Orkneys, Scillies, Man, and the Isle of Wight.

The Channel Islands, near the coast of France, comprising Jersey, Guernsey, &c., having been a part of the dominions of William the Conqueror.

The town and fortress of **Gibraltar**, on the south extremity of Spain. Captured in 1704.

Malta, an island naval station south of Sicily, with Gozo, a small island adjacent (taken from the French in 1800), and **Cyprus**.

IN ASIA.

British India with its dependencies; among the most important British Provinces being **Bengal, Bombay, Burma, N. W. Provinces**, and **Punjab**; also the **Straits Settlements**; **British North Borneo**; **Labuan**; **Ceylon**; **Hong Kong**, obtained from the Chinese in 1843; **Aden**, a commercial and naval station on the Gulf of Aden, obtained from Turkey in 1838; and **Wei-hai-wei**.

IN AFRICA.

Cape Colony, founded by the Dutch in 1652, ceded to Great Britain in 1814; **Natal**, including Province of Zululand; **Orange River Colony**, before the Boer war known as Orange Free State; the **Transvaal**, formerly the South African Republic, but annexed to the British crown in 1900; **Nigeria**; **Rhodesia**; and the four

West Africa Colonies, viz.: **Gold Coast, Lagos, Gambia, and Sierra Leone**; the **Islands of Mauritius, the Seychelles, St. Helena, Ascension, and other islands**; the **Protectorates of Bechuanaland; Central Africa; East Africa; Somaliland; Uganda; and Zanzibar.**

AUSTRALIA, ETC., IN THE PACIFIC.

The Commonwealth of **Australia** consisting of the six colonies of **New South Wales; Victoria; Queensland; South Australia; Western Australia; and Tasmania**; the **Crown Colony of British New Guinea**; the **Colony of New Zealand** and the **Crown Colony of Fiji.**

IN NORTH AMERICA.

The **Dominion of Canada** composed of the following provinces: **Ontario; Quebec; New Brunswick; Nova Scotia; Prince Edward's Island; Manitoba; British Columbia; and the North West Territories**; also the **Island of Newfoundland**, with its dependency, **Labrador**; and the **Bermuda Islands.**

IN THE WEST INDIES.

The **British West India** possessions are in six groups: the **Bahamas; Barbados; Jamaica with Turks Islands; Leeward Islands; Trinidad with Tobago; and Windward Islands.**

IN CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA.

British Guiana; British Honduras; and the Falkland Islands in the South Atlantic.

The **Norfolk, Chatham, and Fiji Islands**, and some others in the Pacific Ocean, belong to Great Britain.

SYNOPSIS FOR REVIEW.

PART I.—BEFORE THE NORMAN CONQUEST (pp. 1-42).

I.—Early Britain.

Name, ancient and modern.

People; their character, mode of life, and dwellings. Their government, wars, religion, and worship.

Bards, festivals, and Druids.

Origin of Britons. Civilization, mining, and trade. Language. The Gaels.

II.—Roman Occupation.

Cæsar's first invasion and its incidents.

Cæsar's second invasion. Caswallon. Native kings. Cymbeline.

Claudius. Caradoc.

Suetonius, Mona, and Boadicea.

Agricola. Picts and Scots. Roman walls. Benefits of Roman rule.

Roads. Towns and their ruins. Mode of life. Habits. Mining.

Christianity. Romans leave Britain.

III.—Saxon Conquest.

Raids by Picts and Scots. Saxon freebooters.

Hengist and **Horsa.** Conquests. King Arthur. Saxons and Christianity. The Heptarchy.

Kent and Ethelbert. Sussex. Wessex. Essex. Northumbria. East Anglia. Mercia. Egbert.

The Saxons; their government. The people. Religion, mode of life, and education.

IV.—Saxon Kings, &c.

Egbert. Danish raids.

Alfred's reign and character.

Edward the Elder. His contests with the Danes. The first king of all England.

Athelstan. War with the Danes and others.

Edmund. His tragical death.

Edred. Subjugates the Danes and others. Strengthens the kingdom. Dunstan.

Edwy. His marriage. Contest with Dunstan and Odo.

Edgar. Peaceful reign. Protects commerce by a fleet. Tax upon Welsh nobles. His marriage.

Edward the Martyr.

Ethelred II. A weak king. Danegeld. Massacre of the Danes. Sweyn. The Danes. Danish words.

V. — Danish Kings.

Canute and his reign.

Harold I.

Canute II. Saxon kings restored.

Edward the Confessor. His history. Candidate for the throne.

Godwin. Edward's reign. Godwin in disgrace.

Harold, and **William** the Duke of Normandy. Edward's death and character.

Harold II. King. Norwegian invasion. William opposes Harold. Invades England.

Battle of Hastings. Result. Its importance.

Growth of the nation. Society. Slavery.

Dwellings and furniture. Dress.

Food, meals, amusements, and domestic life. Bayeux tapestry.

Agriculture, trades, commerce, and traffic.

Government. Trials in court. Religion. Schools. Bede

Benedictine monks. Towns. Capitals.

SYNOPSIS FOR REVIEW.

PART II.—FEUDAL PERIOD (pp. 45-91).

I.—The Norman Family.

William I. His coronation. State of the kingdom. His policy. Absence. Exeter and York. Revolts. The Danes. Disaster at York. Devastation of the country. Cruelty. Chester. Ely. Family troubles. New Forest. Doomsday book. Feudal System. William and the Church. Odo. Battle Abbey. William's last days, funeral, and character.

William II. His character, reign, and death.

Henry I. Norman and Saxon families united. Character.

Stephen. Accession and reign. Wars. Social distress. Character.

II.—The Plantagenet Family.

Henry II. His dominions. Church and State. Councils of Clarendon. Thomas à Becket. Family troubles. Henry's character. The arts. The comforts of life.

Richard I. and the Crusades. His character.

John. Quarrel with the Pope. Magna Charta. John's character.

Henry III. His reign and character. Popular freedom Leicester.

Edward I. The Jews. Wales. War with Scotland. Wallace and Bruce. Edward's character and reign.

Edward II. Bannockburn. Character and reign. Isabella and Mortimer.

Edward III. Mortimer. War with the Scots and France. Cressy. The Black Prince. Philippa. Poitiers. Possessions lost. Edward's character and reign. Dukes. Pestilence. The English language.

Richard II. His regents. Wat Tyler. War with Scotland and France. The king deposed. Wickliffe and Chaucer. Progress. Castles. The barons. The clergy. Cathedrals.

Church revenues. Friars. Miracle Plays. House of Commons. Education. Roger Bacon. Alchemy, &c. Language. Tournaments and chivalry. Trade and Commerce. Agriculture. Dwellings. Food. Dress. Villenage.

III.—Branch of Lancaster.

Henry IV. A usurper and persecutor. Character and reign. Prince Henry.

Henry V. His reform. Oldcastle. France invaded. Harfleur. Agincourt. Henry's character. Origin of the Tudors.

Henry VI. His guardians. Joan of Arc. Margaret of Anjou. War of the Roses.

IV.—Branch of York.

Edward IV. Towton. The queen a fugitive. Warwick. Defeat of Margaret. Edward's character and conduct. Art of printing.

Edward V. His fate.

Richard III. A usurper. His character and acts. Bosworth. Wars of the Roses. Their character and influence. The serfs. New colleges.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF ENGLISH AND LEADING CONTEMPORANEOUS SOVEREIGNS AND
IMPORTANT EVENTS,

From the Norman Family to the Tudor Family.

- A.D.
1000. 66. William I. — Henry IV., Germany, 56. Pope Gregory VII. (Hildebrand), 73. Malcolm III., Scotland, 57. Booksellers first known. Surnames first used by nobility. Tower of London built, 80. Papal power very great.
87. William II. — Pope Urban II., Duncan II., Scotland.
First Crusade, 96. Jerusalem taken by the Crusaders, 99.
1100. Henry I. — Alexander I., David I., Scotland.
Henry IV., Germany, died, 1106. Knights Templar instituted. Writing-paper used.
35. Stephen. — Conrad III., Germany, 38. Moscow built, 44. Second Crusade, 47. Magnetic needle known in Italy.
54. Henry II. — Frederick Barbarossa., Germany, 52. Malcolm IV., 53. William, 65. Scotland. Saladin. Genghis Khan, 76. Bank of Venice founded, 57. Bills of exchange used.

- A.D.
1100. 89. **Richard I.** — **Pope Clement III.**, **Henry VI.** (the Cruel), Germany. **Philip Augustus**, France. Papal power supreme. Third Crusade, 88. Richard defeats Saladin at Ascalon, 92. Jews the principal bankers of the world.
99. **John.** — **Pope Innocent III.** **Otho IV.**, Germany. Fourth Crusade. Afghan Empire founded. The Troubadours. Jerusalem taken by the Turks.
- 1200.** 16. **Henry III.** — **Alexander II. and III.**, Scotland. **Louis IX.** (St. Louis), France. Coal discovered, 37. Astronomy and geography revived by the Moors.
72. **Edward I.** — **John Baliol**, Scotland, 92. **Philip IV.**, France, 85. Marco Polo travels in the East. Parliaments at Paris, 94. Spectacles invented, 99. Ottoman Empire founded, 99. Mariner's compass invented, 1302.
- 1300.** 7. **Edward II.** — Seat of the Papacy removed to **Avignon**, 8. William Tell. Dante died, 21. Swiss confederation established, 7. Knights Templar suppressed, 12.
27. **Edward III.** — **Philip VI.**, 28; **Charles V.**, 64. France. **Pope Innocent VI.** Two hundred thousand Moors invade Spain. Fire-arms, 45. Gunpowder invented at Cologne, 40. Turks first enter Rome, 52. Tamerlane, 70. Great Plague in Europe, 47.
77. **Richard II.** — Popes return to Rome. **Charles VI.**, France, 80.
99. **Henry IV.** — **Solyman**, Turkey. The Medici supreme in Florence. Canary Islands discovered, 5.
- 1400.** 13. **Henry V.** — **Sigismund**, Germany. Paris taken by the English, 20. Madeira discovered.

A.D.

1400. 22. **Henry VI.** — **Charles VII.**, France. **James I. and II.**, Scotland. Joan of Arc. The Azores discovered, 32. Invention of printing, 36. Famine and plague in Paris, 38. Vatican Library founded, 46. Wood-engraving.
61. **Edward IV.** — **Louis XI.**, France. End of Tartar rule in Russia. Watches made at Nuremberg, 77. Copernicus born, 73.
83. **Edward V.** — **Charles VIII.**, France. **Pope Innocent VIII.**
83. **Richard III.** — Luther born. *Æsop's Fables* printed by Caxton. Cape of Good Hope discovered, 86.

SYNOPSIS FOR REVIEW.

PART III. CHAPTERS I.-IV.

THE TUDOR AND THE STUART FAMILIES.

PAGES 97-157.

I. — The Tudor Family.

Henry VII. His title. Character of the Tudors. Pretenders. Henry's character. Useful reign. Feudal system. The navy. Spirit of adventure. Revival of learning. The Star Chamber. Origin of the Stuarts.

Henry VIII. Prospects and disappointment. Henry's real character. Foreign wars. Flodden. The Reformation. Defender of the Faith. Wolsey. Matrimonial troubles. More. Quarrel with the Papacy. A persecutor. More matrimonial troubles. Henry in history. Important events and persons.

Edward VI. His character and reign. Lady Jane Grey.

Mary. Her early life; marriage; religion; character; policy. Persecutions. Loss of Calais. Mary's death. Her treatment in history.

Elizabeth. Offers of marriage. Character of her reign. Acts of supremacy and uniformity. Mary, Queen of Scots; her career. Spanish Armada. Eminent statesmen. Earl of Essex. Elizabeth's last days. Her character, public and private. Important events.

Mode of Life and State of Society. Political events. The Reformation. Trade, commerce, and adventure. Manufactures and agriculture. Labor of women. Condition of the people. Dwellings and furniture. Style of living. Feasting and food. Dress and personal appearance. Amusements. Weddings. Education.

II. — The Stuart Family.

James I. Character of the Stuarts. A conspiracy. Raleigh. Gunpowder Plot. Dissenters. English Bible. American

colonies. The Puritans; New England. James's associates and counsellors. James as a ruler; spirit of liberty. James's death and family; person and character. Important events and persons.

Charles I. State of the kingdom. Arbitrary measures of the king. Ship-money. John Hampden. Petition of Rights. Strafford and Laud; opposition to Episcopacy. The King and Parliament. Bold measures; civil war and its parties; leaders. Edgehill. Charles at Oxford. Foreign aid. Death of Hampden. Newbury. Alliance with the Scots. League and Covenant. Re-enforcements. Marston Moor. The army. Naseby. End of the war. Charles with the Scots; his ransom; a prisoner. His trial, execution, and death. Feelings of the nation. Charles's character and abilities; opponents; family. Artists. Westminster Assembly. Roger Williams. Posts.

III.—The Commonwealth.

Cromwell. Change of government. The army in power. State of Ireland. Cromwell's campaign. Places taken; castles. Prince Charles and the Scots. Dunbar. Worcester. Charles II. a fugitive. War with Holland; naval battles. Cromwell and Long Parliament. Protector. Little Parliament. Cromwell's administration; affliction and death; abilities and career; place in history; private character. Richard Cromwell. The Restoration.

IV.—The Stuarts Restored.

Charles II. His accession. Public sentiment. Charles's prodigality. Fire and plague. Dissatisfaction. Duke of York. Habeas Corpus. Plots. Character of court and nation. Distinguished men. Learned societies.

James II. His character. Monmouth and Jeffries.

The Revolution of 1688.

William III. and Mary. The navy. Principles established. Passive obedience. Opposition to William III. His character. The bank of England.

Progress of the century: increase of wealth; trade and commerce; glass; newspapers; art; population. London.

Anne. War of the Spanish succession; battles. Constitutional union. Anne's character. Marlborough. Eminent persons. Party names. The Stuart family.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF ENGLISH AND LEADING CONTEMPORANEOUS SOVEREIGNS AND
IMPORTANT EVENTS.

Houses of Tudor and Stuart, 1485-1714.

-
- A.D.
1400. 85. **Henry VII.** — **Charles VIII.**, France, 83-98.
Louis XII., France. **Frederick III.**, Germany, 93. **Pope Alexander VI.**, 92. **Ferdinand and Isabella**, Spain, 74. Map of the world published at Nuremberg, 90. America discovered, 92. Diet at Worms, 95.
1500. 9. **Henry VIII.** — **Francis I.**, France, 15. **Charles V.**, Germany, 19-56. **Popes**, — **Leo X.**, 21; **Clement VII.**; **Paul III.** **Gustavus Vasa**, Sweden, 28. St. Peter's Church begun, 13. Council of Trent, 45. Albert Durer. Loyola. Michael Angelo. Raphael. Cortez.
47. **Edward VI.** — **Henry II.**, France, husband of **Catherine de Medici**, 47-59. Orange-trees brought to Europe.
53. **Mary.** — **Philip II.**, Spain, 55-98. **Pope Paul IV.**
58. **Elizabeth.** — **Francis II.**, France, husband of **Mary, Queen of Scots**, 59. **Charles IX.** **Henry IV.** **Popes Pius V.**, **Gregory XIII.**, **Clement VIII.** **James VI.**, Scotland, 67. Only two carriages in Paris. Republic of Holland, 79. Kepler. Decimals invented, 2.

A.D.
1600.

3.

James I. — Louis XIII., France, 10-43. **Pope Paul V.** Douai or Catholic version of the Bible published. 9. Virginia settled, 7. Ncv. York, 14. Massachusetts, 20. Maine, New Hampshire, 23.

25.

Charles I. — Ferdinand II., Germany, 19-37. **Pope Urban VII.** Salem, Boston, and Rhode Island settled. Harvard College founded, 38. Condé. Turenne.

49. The Common-

wealth. — **Louis XIV.**, France, 1643-1715. **Leopold I.**, Germany. **Pope Alexander VII.** Air-pump invented. 400,000 people died of the plague at Naples in six months. Fénelon.

60.

Charles II. — Louis XIV. **Pope Innocent XI.** Bombay taken by the English. Steam-engine invented, 63. Bees introduced into New England, 70. Mississippi discovered, 73. King Philip's war, 75. Great comet. William Penn.

85.

James II. — Louis XIV. Suppression of New-England charters.

89.

William and

Mary. — Louis XIV. **Pope Innocent XII.** **Charles XII.**, Sweden. **Peter the Great**, Russia. Salem witchcraft. Yale College founded (1700). Poland dismembered, 2.

1700.

2.

Anne. — Louis XIV. **Pope Clement XI.** St. Petersburg built, 3. St. Paul's rebuilt, 10. Ruins of Herculaneum discovered, 11.

SYNOPSIS FOR REVIEW.

PART III. CONTINUED. CHAPTERS V.-VI.

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V. — The House of Brunswick.

George I. His character and habits. Walpole. Parties. The Pretender.

The South-sea Bubble. The Septennial Act. Literary celebrities.

George II. Walpole. The war of the Austrian succession. Its battles.

The Pretender. His movements. Battles. Culloden.

The Seven-Years' War. Its incidents. Washington. The East-India Company. Lord Clive.

Progress. The national debt.

George II.'s character. Distinguished composer.

George III. State of the country. William Pitt. Oppression of the American Colonies. The American Revolution.

Warren Hastings. His career and trial.

Union of England and Ireland.

General European war. William Pitt, the younger. Battle of the Nile. Trafalgar. Sir John Moore. Talavera. Salamanca. Vittoria. Waterloo; its effects.

War with the United States.

Character of George III.'s reign. Eminent statesmen, historians, and literary persons. Junius. Art and the drama. Prominent dissenters. Military and naval heroes.

Progress: condition of the people; cost of living; taxes. Criminal laws and their execution; prisons; John Howard. The poor. Trade and commerce. Manufactures. Agriculture. Religion. Laws against Catholics. Literature and authors. Articles of comfort. Fine arts. Music. State of society. Education and morals. Notable events. Population.

George IV. His character. Queen Caroline. Greek affairs. Relief of Catholics.

William IV. Reform; what attempted and what secured in Parliament. Slavery. Poor-law reform. Municipal government. Criminal laws. The East-India Company. William IV.'s character.

VI. — Victoria.

Auspicious beginning. The queen's marriage. Union with Hanover dissolved.

Sources of Discontent. Chartism. Corn-laws. Chartism revived. Irish separation attempted.

Temperance reform. Scottish Free Church. Famine in Ireland. The World's Fair. Death of Prince Albert. Canadian rebellion. Afghan war. Conquests in India.

The Sepoy rebellion: Delhi; Cawnpore and Lucknow; memorable sieges. Havelock. Nana-Sahib. The East-India Company.

War with China. Free ports. Canton. Peking.

The balance of power. Rebellion in Egypt. Mehemet-Ali. Settlement of the troubles. Crimean war. Its causes; incidents; battles. Florence Nightingale.

Australia.

Public Measures of Victoria's Reign. Penny postage. Factory reform. Relief of Jewish disabilities. Suffrage. Irish Land Bill. Disestablishment of the Irish Church. Education Bill. Alabama claims. Empress of India. Fish award. Cyprus. Afghan war. Zululand. The Transvaal. Irish Land Bill. Egyptian affairs, and English intervention. Home rule for Ireland agitation. Irish Land Acts. War in South Africa. Boxer uprising in China. Diamond jubilee. King Alfred Millenary. Australian Commonwealth. Death of Victoria.

VII. — Edward VII.

Peace in South Africa. Orange Free State, and the Transvaal incorporated in the Empire of Great Britain.

Population.

Eminent statesmen and literary celebrities. General progress of the nation.

The British Government. The British Possessions.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF ENGLISH AND LEADING CONTEMPORANEOUS SOVEREIGNS AND
IMPORTANT EVENTS.

House of Brunswick. 1714 to the present time.

- A.D.
1700. 14. George I. — Louis **XV.**, France, 15-74. Charles **VI.**, Germany, father of Maria Theresa. Popes Clement **XI.** and Benedict **XIII.** First post-office in America at New York, 10. New Orleans founded, 17. Great earthquake at Palermo, 26.
27. George II. — Louis **XV.**, France. Pope Benedict **XIV.** Frederick the Great Prussia. Baltimore founded, 29. Balloons invented. Vermont and Georgia settled. Washington born, 32. New Style introduced in England, 52. Earthquake at Lisbon, 55. Braddock's defeat; capture of Louisburg and Quebec. Hogarth, Joshua Reynolds, Benjamin West, Wesley, Hume, Newton.
60. George III. — Louis **XV.** and **XVI.**, Napoleon, of France. Popes Clement **XIV.**, Pius **VI.** and **VII.** Frederick the Great. Frederick William **III.**, Prussia, 86. Alexander **I.**, Russia. Wellington. Brown University founded, 64. American Revolution. Sandwich Islands discovered, 78. First census in the United States, 90. French Revolution. First locomotive,

A.D.
1800.

4. Fulton's steamboat, 7. War between England and the United States. General war in Europe. Waterloo. Napoleon at St. Helena. Johnson, Goldsmith, Burns.

20. George IV. — **Louis XVIII.** and **Charles X.**, France. **Pope Leo XII.** Missouri Compromise in the United States. War between Greece and Turkey.

30. William IV. — **Louis Philippe**, France. **Pope Gregory XVI.** Revolution in France. Goethe and Lafayette died. Slavery abolished in the British Colonies, 34.

37. Victoria. — **Louis Philippe**, **Louis Napoleon**, France. **Popes Gregory XVI.**, **Pius IX.**, 46; and **Leo XIII.**, 78. Guizot. **Nicholas**, 25; **Alexander II.**, Russia, 55. **William**, Germany, 71. Electric telegraph invented, 44. War between Mexico and the United States, 46-48. French Republic, 48; the Empire, 52. First Atlantic cable laid, 58; second cable successful, 66. War between France, Sardinia, and Austria, 59. Cavour. Emancipation of serfs in Russia, 61. Civil war in the United States, 61-65. Proclamation of Emancipation, 63. War between Germany and France, 70. France a Republic, 71. Bismarck. Telephone invented, 76. Humboldt, Agassiz, Thiers. Congress of Berlin, 78. **Alexander II.** of Russia, murdered, 81. War between China and Japan, 94-5. Spanish-American war, 98-9.

A.D.

1900. 1. Edward VII. — **Nicholas II.**, Russia. **Victor Emmanuel III.**, Italy. **William II.**, Germany. **Popes Leo XIII.**, **Pius X.** War between Russia and Japan, 1904.

GENEALOGY OF THE ENGLISH SOVEREIGNS.

SAXON LINE.

Egbert, son of Alchmund, Prince of Wessex.

Ethelwolf, son of Egbert.

Ethelbald,
Ethelbert,
Ethelred I.,
Alfred,
} sons of Ethelwolf.

Edward the Elder, son of Alfred.

Athelstan,
Edmund I.,
Edred,
} sons of Edward the Elder.

Edwy,
Edgar,
} sons of Edmund I.

Edward,
Ethelred II.,
} sons of Edgar.

Edmund II, Ironside, son of Ethelred II.

Canute (Danish), son of Sweyn, who was declared King of England, but was never crowned.

Harold I (Danish), son of Canute.

Canute II, or **Hardicanute** (Danish), son of Canute.

Edward the Confessor (Saxon), son of Ethelred II. by his second wife, Emma of Normandy.

Harold II (Saxon), son of Godwine, Earl of Wessex, a Saxon nobleman, but not of royal blood.

NORMAN FAMILY.

William I, the Conqueror, son of Robert, Duke of Normandy; born 1027; died 1087; married Matilda of Flanders, a descendant of Alfred the Great, 1054 (William's great-aunt, Emma of Normandy, was the mother of Edward the Confessor); had four sons and five daughters.

William II., Rufus, third son of William I.; born 1060; killed 1100; not married.

Henry I., youngest son of William I.; born 1068; died 1135; married Maud of Scotland 1100, and Adelais of Louvain 1121; had one son and one daughter.

Stephen I., grandson of William I. by his daughter Adela; born about 1105; died 1154; married Matilda of Boulogne 1134; had three sons and two daughters.

PLANTAGENET FAMILY.

Henry II., son of Geoffrey Plantagenet, Duke of Anjou, and grandson of Henry I. by his daughter Matilda; born 1133; died 1189; married Eleanor of Guienne 1150; had five sons and three daughters.

Richard I., son of Henry II.; born 1157; died 1199; married Berengaria of Navarre 1191; no legitimate children.

John, son of Henry II.; born 1165; died 1216; married Isabel of Gloucester 1189, and Isabel of Angoulême 1199; had two sons and three daughters.

Henry III., eldest son of John; born 1207; died 1272; married Eleanor of Provence 1236; had two sons and two daughters, besides five children who died in infancy.

Edward I., eldest son of Henry III.; born 1239; died 1307; married Eleanor of Castile 1254, and Margaret of France 1299; had six sons and ten daughters.

Edward II., son of Edward I.; born 1284; murdered 1327; married Isabella of France 1308; had two sons and two daughters.

Edward III., son of Edward II.; born 1312; died 1377; married Philippa of Hainault 1328; had seven sons and five daughters.

Richard II., son of the Black Prince, and grandson of Edward III.; born 1366; died about 1400; married Anne of Bohemia 1382, and Isabella of France 1396; no children.

BRANCH OF LANCASTER.

Henry IV., son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, fourth son of Edward III.; born 1366; died 1413; married Mary de Bohun 1397, and Joan of Navarre 1403; had four sons and two daughters.

Henry V., son of Henry IV.; born 1388; died 1422; married Catherine, daughter of Charles VI. of France, 1420; had one son.

Henry VI., son of Henry V.; born 1421; died 1471; married Margaret of Anjou 1445; had one son.

BRANCH OF YORK.

Edward IV., son of Richard, Duke of York; born 1442; died 1483; married Elizabeth Woodville Grey 1463, had three sons and seven daughters. Edward IV. was the grandson of Richard, Earl of Cambridge, who married Anne Mortimer, the great-grand-daughter of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, the third son of Edward III. Richard, Earl of Cambridge, was son of Edmund, Duke of York, fifth son of Edward III.

Edward V., son of Edward IV.; born 1470; murdered about 1483; not married.

Richard III., son of Richard, Duke of York, and brother of Edward IV.; born 1450; killed 1485; married Anne of Warwick 1472; had one son.

TUDOR FAMILY.

Henry VII., son of Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, and a descendant of Edward III. by his fourth son, John of Gaunt; born 1456; died 1509; married Elizabeth of York, daughter of Edward IV., 1486; had three sons and four daughters.

Henry VIII., son of Henry VII.; born 1491; died 1547; married Catherine of Aragon 1509, Anne Boleyn 1532, Jane Seymour 1536, Anne of Cleves 1540, Catherine Howard 1540, and Catherine Parr 1543; had one son and two daughters.

Edward VI., son of Henry VIII.; born 1537; died 1558; not married.

Mary, daughter of Henry VIII. by Catherine of Aragon, and granddaughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain; born 1516; died 1558; married Prince Philip (afterwards Philip II.) of Spain; no children.

Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn; born 1533; died 1603; not married.

HOUSE OF STUART.

James I., son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and Henry Stuart (Lord Darnley), her cousin. James I. was great-grandson of Henry VII. on the side of both father and mother; born 1566; died 1625; married Anne of Denmark 1590; two sons and one daughter, besides several children who died in infancy.

Charles I., son of James I.; born 1600; beheaded 1649; married Henrietta Maria of France 1625; three sons and two daughters.

Oliver Cromwell, Protector; born 1599; died 1658; married Elizabeth Bouchier; had five sons and four daughters.

Charles II., son of Charles I.; born 1630; died 1685; married Catherine of Braganza; no legitimate children.

James II., son of Charles I.; born 1633; died 1701; married Anne Hyde 1660, Mary of Modena 1673; one son and two daughters.

William III. and **Mary II.** **William**, Prince of Orange, and grandson of Charles I.; born 1650; died 1702; married Mary 1677.

Mary, daughter of James II.; born 1662; died 1694; married as above. They had no children.

Anne, daughter of James II.; born 1665; died 1714; married George, Prince of Denmark, 1683; nineteen sons and daughters. All died young.

HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

George I., son of the Elector of Hanover, and great-grandson of James I.; born 1660; died 1727; married Sophia Dorothea of Zell; had one son and one daughter.

George II., son of George I.; born 1683; died 1760; married Caroline of Anspach 1705; three sons and five daughters.

George III., son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, and grandson of George II.; born 1738; died 1820, married Charlotte of Mechlenburg-Strelitz 1761; had nine sons and six daughters.

George IV., son of George III.; born 1762; died 1830; married Caroline of Brunswick 1795; one daughter.

William IV., son of George III.; born 1765; died 1837; married Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen; two daughters, who died young.

Victoria, daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, and grand-daughter of George III.; her mother was Maria Louisa Victoria of Saxe-Coburg; born 1819, died 1901; married her cousin Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, 1840; four sons and five daughters. The Prince-Consort died in 1861.

Edward VII., son of Victoria; born 1841; married Alexandra, daughter of the King of Denmark, 1863. Two sons and three daughters.

The descent of Edward VII. from William the Conqueror will be readily understood from the following:—

Edward VII. is the son of
Victoria, the daughter of
Edward (the Duke of Kent), the son of
George III., the son of
Frederick (Prince of Wales), the son of
George II., the son of

George I., the son of
 Sophia (Electress of Hanover), the daughter of
 Elizabeth (Queen of Bohemia), the daughter of
 James I., the son of
 Mary, Queen of Scots, the daughter of
 James V. (of Scotland), the son of
 James IV. (of Scotland) and Margaret Tudor, the daughter of
 Henry VII. (and Elizabeth of York), the son of
 Margaret Beaufort, the daughter of
 John Beaufort (the Duke of Somerset); the son of
 John Beaufort (the Earl of Somerset), the son of
 John of Gaunt (the Duke of Lancaster), the fourth son of
 Edward III., the son of
 Edward II., the son of
 Edward I., the son of
 Henry III., the son of
 John, the son of
 Henry II., the son of
 Matilda, the daughter of
 Henry I., the fourth son of
 William the Conqueror.

The descent can also be traced from Henry VII. through the House of York.

Through the York Branch.

Elizabeth of York (queen of Henry VII.) was the daughter of
 Edward IV., son of
 Richard (Duke of York), son of
 Anne Mortimer, daughter of
 Roger Mortimer, son of
 Edmund Mortimer and Philippa, daughter of
 Lionel (Duke of Clarence), third son of
 Edward III.

THE PRESENT ROYAL FAMILY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

His Majesty Edward VII, son of Queen Victoria and Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha; born November 9, 1841; married, March 10, 1863, to Princess Alexandra, eldest daughter of King Christian IX of Denmark. Succeeded to the throne January 22, 1901, on the death of his mother.

His children:—

1. George Frederick, Prince of Wales, Duke of Cornwall and York; born June 3, 1865; married July 6, 1893, to Victoria Mary, daughter of the Duke of Teck. Five children.

2. Princess Louise; born February 20, 1867; married, July 27, 1889, to the Duke of Fife. Two children.

3. Princess Victoria Alexandra; born July 6, 1868.

4. Princess Maud Charlotte; born November 26, 1869; married July 22, 1896, to Prince Karl of Denmark.

TABLE OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.—No. I.

From the Accession of Egbert, 827, to the Death of Richard III., 1485.

A.D.		KINGS.	Ys.	
800				
				SAXON LINE.
	27	Egbert	11	First sole monarch of England; end of the
	38	Ethelwolf	20	<i>Saxon Heptarchy.</i>
9th	57	Ethelbald	3	{ The Danes begin their hostile attacks, and continue for more than two centuries to scourge the country.
	60	Ethelbert	6	
	66	Ethelred I. . . .	5	
	72	Alfred	28	An illustrious king; has a prosperous reign.
900				
	00	Edward <i>the Elder</i>	25	The Danes defeated.
	25	Athelstan	16	Defeats the Danes, Welsh, Scots, &c.
	41	Edmund I. . . .	7	Murdered by the robber <i>Leolf</i> .
10th	48	Edred	7	Ascendency of <i>Dunstan</i> .
	55	Edwy	4	
	59	Edgar	16	<i>Dunstan</i> archbishop.
	75	Edward <i>the Martyr</i>	3	Assassinated by order of <i>Elfrida</i> .
	78	Ethelred II. . . .	37	Massacre of the Danes at the festival <i>St. Brice</i> .
1000				
	15	Sweyn, <i>Dane</i>	$\frac{1}{2}$	Conquers England, and is proclaimed king.
	16	Edmund II., <i>Ironsides</i> ,	1	Defeated by the Danes, and murdered.
				DANISH KINGS.
	17	Canute, <i>the Great</i>	19	Completes the conquest of England.
	36	Harold I., <i>Harefoot</i>	4	
11th	39	Canute II. . . .	3	The power of the <i>Danes</i> terminates.
				SAXON LINE RESTORED.
	41	Edward, <i>Confessor</i>	24	First king that touched for the <i>king's-evil</i> .
	65	Harold II. . . .	1	Defeated and slain at <i>Hastings</i> .
				NORMAN FAMILY.
	66	William, <i>Conqueror</i>	21	Conquers England; introduces the <i>feudal system</i> and <i>Norman language</i> .
	87	William II. . . .	13	Is shot while hunting; <i>Archbishop Anselm</i> .
1100				
	00	Henry I. . . .	35	Usurps the throne of his brother <i>Robert</i> .
	35	Stephen (<i>of Blois</i>)	19	Usurps, and has contests with <i>Matilda</i> .
				FAMILY OF PLANTAGENET.
12th	54	Henry II. . . .	35	Conquers <i>Ireland</i> ; assassination of <i>Becket</i> .
	89	Richard I. . . .	10	Engages in a <i>Crusade</i> , and defeats <i>Saladin</i> .
	99	John, <i>Lackland</i>	17	Foreign dominions lost; <i>Magna Charta</i> .
1200				
	16	Henry III. . . .	56	Montfort; first <i>House of Commons</i> .
13th		Edward I. . . .	35	Subdues <i>Wales</i> ; <i>William Wallace</i> ; <i>Robert Bruce</i> .
	72			
1300				
	7	Edward II. . . .	20	Defeated by the Scots at <i>Bannockburn</i> .
	27	Edward III. . . .	50	A splendid reign; <i>chivalry</i> in its zenith; victories of <i>Cressy</i> , <i>Poitiers</i> ; the <i>Black Prince</i> .
14th				
	77	Richard II. . . .	22	Deposed and murdered; <i>Wickliffe</i> ; <i>Chaucer</i> .
				BRANCH OF LANCASTER.
	99	Henry IV. . . .	14	Gains the throne instead of the rightful heir.
1400				
	13	Henry V. . . .	9	Victory of <i>Agincourt</i> . <i>Oldcastle</i> burnt.
	22	Henry VI. . . .	39	Civil wars of the <i>White</i> and <i>Red Roses</i> .
				BRANCH OF YORK.
15th	61	Edward IV. . . .	22	Battles of <i>Towton</i> , <i>Barnet</i> , and <i>Tewksbury</i> .
	83	Edward V. . . .		Murdered after a reign of seventy-four days.
	83	Richard III. . . .	2	Defeated and slain at <i>Bosworth</i> .

TABLE OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.—No. 2.

From Henry VII., 1485, to the Death of George II., 1760.

A.D.		KINGS.	Ys.	
1500	85	Henry VII. . . .	24	HOUSE OF TUDOR. Marries <i>Elizabeth</i> , daughter of Edward IV., uniting the houses of <i>York</i> and <i>Lancaster</i> ; commerce encouraged; the <i>feudal system</i> declines.
	9	Henry VIII. . . .	38	A cruel tyrant; victory of <i>Flodden</i> by Surrey; introduces the <i>Reformation</i> ; two <i>queens</i> divorced, two beheaded; <i>Wolsey</i> disgraced; <i>Bishop Fisher</i> , <i>Sir Thomas More</i> , <i>Cromwell</i> , and <i>Surrey</i> beheaded.
16th	47	Edward VI. . . .	6	Promotes the <i>Reformation</i> , aided by <i>Cranmer</i> .
	53	Mary	5	Restores <i>Catholic religion</i> ; marries <i>Philip II.</i> of Spain; <i>Jane Grey</i> beheaded; many Protestants burnt.
	58	Elizabeth	44	Has an auspicious reign, assisted by <i>Bacon</i> , <i>Burleigh</i> , <i>Walsingham</i> , &c.; agriculture, commerce, and literature flourish; the <i>Church of England</i> established; <i>Mary, Queen of Scots</i> , beheaded; the <i>Spanish Armada</i> destroyed.
1600				
17th	3	James I. . . .	22	HOUSE OF STUART. Unites the crowns of <i>England</i> and <i>Scotland</i> ; the Gunpowder Plot defeated; the <i>Bible</i> translated; the <i>Puritans</i> settle at <i>Plymouth</i> , Mass.
	25	Charles I. . . .	24	Despotic; attempts to raise money without consent of Parliament; <i>civil war</i> rages; <i>Strafford</i> and <i>Laud</i> beheaded; <i>Charles</i> defeated and beheaded (1649); the <i>Commonwealth</i> begins.
	53	<i>Cromwell</i>	5	Dissolves the Long Parliament, and becomes <i>Protector</i> ; Navigation Act; Dutch war.
	60	Charles II. . . .	25	Profligate; his reign injurious to <i>liberty</i> and <i>morality</i> ; <i>plague</i> and <i>fire</i> in London; <i>Clarendon</i> banished; <i>Russell</i> and <i>Algernon Sidney</i> executed.
	85	James II. . . .	4	Attempts to establish the <i>Catholic religion</i> , and is obliged to abdicate: hence the <i>Revolution</i> .
	89	William III. & Mary .	13	<i>Constitution</i> confirmed; battles of <i>Boyne</i> and <i>La Hogue</i> ; Peace of <i>Ryswick</i> ; <i>national debt</i> begins.
1700				
18th	2	Anne	12	<i>Marlborough</i> and <i>Eugene's</i> victories of <i>Blenheim</i> , <i>Ramillies</i> , <i>Malplaquet</i> , &c.; <i>literature</i> flourishes.
	14	George I. . . .	13	HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK. Rebellion in favor of the <i>Pretender</i> suppressed; South-Sea scheme; <i>Walpole</i> minister.
	27	George II. . . .	33	The Pretender overthrown at <i>Culloden</i> ; war with <i>France</i> carried on in Europe, Asia, and America; battle of <i>Dettingen</i> ; conquest of <i>Canada</i> .

TABLE OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.—No. 3.

From George III., 1760, to Edward VII.

A.D.		KINGS.	Ys.	
1800 19th	60	George III. . .	60	HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK, <i>concluded</i> . A long and eventful reign; hostilities with and loss of the <i>American Colonies</i> ; long war with <i>France</i> , terminated by the battle of <i>Waterloo</i> ; possessions in India greatly extended; commerce and the arts flourish, but the <i>national debt</i> greatly increased; <i>Regency</i> 1811.
	20	George IV. . .	10	Proceedings against <i>Queen Caroline</i> ; battle of <i>Navarino</i> ; <i>Corporation</i> and <i>Test Acts</i> repealed; <i>Catholic emancipation</i> .
	30	William IV. . .	7	The <i>Reform Bill</i> passes; Irish Church Reform; <i>colonial slavery</i> abolished; East-India charter modified.
	37	Victoria . . .	63	Married to <i>Prince Albert</i> ; Chartism; Corn Laws; Scottish Free Church; the <i>World's Fair</i> ; Canadian rebellion; <i>Afghan</i> war; <i>Sepoy</i> rebellion; war with <i>China</i> ; <i>Egypt</i> ; in the <i>Crimea</i> ; penny postage; Jewish relief; <i>Education Bill</i> ; disestablishment of the Irish Church; Cyprus; <i>Afghan</i> war; <i>Zulu</i> war. Home rule agitation. War with the Boers. Boxer uprising in China. Diamond jubilee. King Alfred millenary. Australian commonwealth.
1900 20th	01	Edward VII. . .		Irish Land Act.

NOTE.— The figures on the left hand of the kings denote the commencement of their reigns

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF ENGLISH CELEBRITIES.

A.D.	STATESMEN AND COM- MANDERS.	Died.	POETS.	Died.	DIVINES.	Died.	MISCEL- LANEOUS.	Died.
1200	Leicester . . .	65	Robt. of Gloucester,		Langton . . .	28	Roger Bacon . .	92
1300	Black Prince .	76	CHAUCER . . .		Wickliffe . . .	84	Mandeville . . .	72
1400	Warwick . . .	71	Gower	8	À Kempis . . .	71	Caxton	92
15th								
1500	Wolsey	30	Skelton	29	Tyndale	36	Thomas More, . .	35
	Somerset	52	Wyatt	41	Ridley	55	Thomas Elyot, . .	46
	Gardiner	55	Earl of Surrey .	47	Latimer	55	Leland	52
	S. Cabot	57	Heywood	65	CRANMER	56	Cheke	57
16th	Leicester	88	Gascoigne	77	Card. Pole . . .	58	R. Ascham	68
	Walsingham . .	89	Marlowe	93	Coverdale . . .	69	Holingshed . . .	81
	Drake	96	Peele	97	Knox	72	Buchanan	82
	Burleigh	98	SPENSER	98	Hooker		P. Sidney	86
1600	Essex	1	F. Beaumont . . .	15	Andrewes	26	Napier	17
	Raleigh	18	SHAKSPEARE, . .	16	Usher	56	BACON	26
	Stratford	41	J. Fletcher	25	Walton	61	Camden	28
	Pym	43	Herbert	35	Th. Fuller	61	Coke	34
	Hampden	43	Ben Jonson	37	Taylor	67	Burton	39
	Blake	57	Massinger	39	Barrow	77	Selden	54
17th	Cromwell	58	Cowley	67	Leighton	84	Harvey	57
	Monk	70	MILTON	74	H. More	87	Hale	76
	Shaftesbury . . .	83	Roscommon	84	Bunyan	88	Harrington	77
	Russell	83	Otway	85	Cudworth	88	Hobbes	79
	Alg. Sidney . . .	83	Waller	87	Baxter	91	Sydenham	89
	Temple	99	Butler	88	Tillotson	94	Boyle	91
1700	Cavendish	7	DRYDEN	1	Howe	5	LOCKE	4
	Godolphin	12	Parnell	17	M. Henry	14	ADDISON	19
	Somers	16	Rowe	18	Burnet	15	Sir C. Wren	23
	Marlborough . . .	22	Prior	21	South	16	NEWTON	27
	Walpole	46	Congreve	28	Clarke	29	De Foe	31
	Bolingbroke . . .	51	Gay	32	Watts	48	Swift	45
	Vernon	57	POPE	44	Doddridge	51	Fielding	54
	Wolfe	59	Thomson	48	Butler	52	Richardson	61
18th	Boscawen	61	Collins	56	Berkeley	53	Sterne	68
	Lyttelton	63	Shenstone	63	Lardner	68	Hume	76
	Chatham	78	Churchill	64	Whitefield	70	Garrick	79
	Cook	79	Young	65	Warburton	79	Blackstone	80
	Rodney	92	Akenside	70	Lowth	87	JOHNSON	84
	North	92	Gray	71	Wesley	91	Ad. Smith	90
	Mansfield	93	Goldsmith	74	Price	91	Robertson	93
	Burke	97	Burns	96	Campbell	96	Gibbon	94
	Amherst	98	COWPER		Blair		Wm. Jones	94
1800	Nelson	5	Beattie	3	Priestley	4	Sheridan	6
	Pitt	6	H. K. White	6	Paley	5	Playfair	19
	Fox	6	Shelley	22	Horsley	6	Herschel	22
	Grattan	20	BYRON	24	Porteus	8	Mitford	27
	Erskine	23	Crabbe	32	Watson	16	Stewart	28
	Canning	27	W. SCOTT	32	Th. Scott	21	Davy	29
19th	Eldon	38	Coleridge	34	R. Hall	31	Mackintosh	32
	Grey	45	Southey	43	A. Clarke	32	Wilberforce	33
	C. Napier	52	Campbell	44	Arnold	42	Doug. Jerrold . . .	57
	Wellington	52	Wordsworth	50	J. Foster	44	Macaulay	59
	Cobden	65	Montgomery	55	Robertson	53	Hallam	59
	Palmerston	65	Leigh Hunt	59	Whately	63	Thackeray	64
	Russell	78	Mrs. Browning . . .	62	Alford	71	De Quincey	59
	Derby	69	W. S. Landor	64	Stanley	81	Dickens	70
	Gladstone	98	Tennyson	97	Spurgeon	92	Carlyle	81
	Beaconsfield . . .	81	M. Arnold	88	Manning	92	H. Spencer	1903

REMARKS ON THE TABLES OF ENGLISH HISTORY AND DISTINGUISHED PERSONS.

Some of the most eminent sovereigns who have occupied the throne of England are the following, — Alfred, William the Conqueror, Henry II., Edward I., Edward III., Henry VII., Elizabeth, William III. and Victoria.

The cause of English freedom has been most effectually promoted during some of the weakest and least prosperous reigns, as those of John, Henry III., Charles I., and James II.

Some of the most important political changes or revolutions that have taken place in England since the Norman Conquest are the granting of the *Magna Charta*, or the Great Charter, in the time of King John; the establishment of the House of Commons, in the time of Henry III.; the Reformation in religion, in the reign of Henry VIII.; the union of the crowns of England and Scotland, at the commencement of the reign of James I.; the civil war between Charles I. and the English Parliament, which issued in the defeat and execution of the king, and the establishment of the Commonwealth under Cromwell; the restoration of the monarchy, under Charles II.; the dethronement or abdication of James II.; the accession of William and Mary, and the establishment of the principles of the Constitution (1688); the legislative union between England and Scotland, in the reign of Queen Anne; the union of Ireland with Great Britain, in the reign of George III. (1800); and the Reform of Parliament, in the reign of William IV. (1832.)

Chaucer, the most celebrated of the early English poets, flourished in the latter part of the fourteenth century, in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II.; but English classical literature may be considered as beginning in the latter half of the sixteenth century, during the reign of Elizabeth, with *Hooker*, a learned divine, *Spenser* and *Shakspeare*, eminent poets, and *Bacon*, the philosopher, who also lived through the reign of James I. The reign of Queen Anne was particularly distinguished for men of genius, among whom were *Newton*, *Addison*, *Pope*, and *Swift*.

Wolsey and *Gardiner*, who are placed in the left-hand column, were both ecclesiastics and bishops, though more distinguished as statesmen than as divines. Of those who are placed in the right-hand column, *Sir Thomas More*, the author of "Utopia," &c., and *Lord Bacon*, the philosopher, were both chancellors of England; *Sir Matthew Hale* was an eminent judge; *Sir Edward Coke*, a great lawyer, *Sir Philip Sidney*, the author of "Arcadia," &c., *Harrington*, the author of "Oceana," &c., *John Selden*, and *Sir William Jones*, all eminent scholars, were also distinguished in political life.

Some who are classed in the Table among statesmen and commanders are also distinguished as authors, as *Raleigh*, *Bolingbroke*, *Lyttleton*, *Temple*, *Algernon Sidney*, *Burke*, &c.; some classed among the divines and miscellaneous authors are also noted as poets, as *Addison*, *Watts*, *Swift*, &c.; and some of the poets are also eminent as prose-writers.

Shakspeare, the great English dramatist, is eminently distinguished for genius; *Milton* is regarded as the greatest epic poet of modern times; *Lord Bacon* pointed out the true mode of philosophizing; the works of *Newton* formed an era in natural philosophy and astronomy, as did those of *Locke* in the philosophy of the human mind.

There are many names of much merit in English literature in addition to those contained in the Table.

A REFERENCE LIBRARY.

THE following is a list of works referred to in the topics for outside reading. Those marked with an asterisk are especially desirable.

CHEYNEY, E. P. "Industrial and Social History of England." Macmillan. \$1.40.

COLBY, C. W. "Selections from the Sources of English History." Longmans. \$1.50.

*COMAN and BATES. "English History Told by English Poets." Macmillan. 60 cents.

CREIGHTON, M. "Age of Elizabeth." Epoch Series. Longmans. \$1.00.

CREIGHTON, LOUISE. "Stories from English History." Longmans. 50 cents.

CREIGHTON, LOUISE. "Social History of England." Longmans. 60 cents.

FREEMAN, E. A. "Short History of the Norman Conquest." Clarendon Press. 60 cents.

*GARDINER, S. R. "A Student's History of England." 3 vols. Longmans. \$3.60.

*GARDINER, S. R. "School Atlas of English History." Longmans. \$1.50.

GARDINER, S. R. "The Puritan Revolution." Epochs. Longmans. \$1.00.

GARDINER, S. R. "Historical Biographies." Longmans. 40 cents.

GREEN, J. R. "A Short History of the English People." Harpers. \$1.20.

GUEST, M. J., and UNDERWOOD, F. H. "A Handbook of English History." Macmillan. 75 cents.

HALE, E. "The Fall of the Stuarts." Epochs. Longmans. \$1.00.

*KENDALL, Elizabeth K. "A Source-Book of English History." Macmillan. 60 cents.

MCCARTHY, J. "A History of Our Own Times." 3 vols. Harpers. \$3.75.

MCCARTHY, J. "Epoch of Reform." Longmans. \$1.00.

*MONTAGUE, F. C. "Elements of English Constitutional History." Longmans. \$1.25.

MOBERLY, C. E. "The Early Tudors." Longmans. \$1.00.

OLD SOUTH LEAFLETS. Directors of the Old South work, Boston. 5 cents each.

STUBBS, W. "The Early Plantagenets." Longmans. \$1.00.

LIST OF WORKS FOR REFERENCE, INVESTIGATION, AND SIDE READING, IN THE STUDY OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

I. For Teachers and General Readers.

Celtic Britain	<i>Rhys.</i>
Pictures of Old England	<i>Pauli.</i>
Danes, Saxons, and Normans	<i>Edgar.</i>
Old English History	<i>Freeman.</i>
The Making of England	<i>Green.</i>
Anglo-Saxons in Britain	<i>Allen.</i>
History of the Anglo-Saxons	<i>Turner.</i>
Childhood of the English Nation	<i>Armitage.</i>
The Norman Conquest	<i>Freeman.</i>
Short History of the Norman Conquest	<i>Freeman.</i>
The Conquest of England	<i>Green.</i>
The Normans in Europe	<i>Johnson.</i>
Celtic Scotland	<i>Skeene.</i>
History of the English People	<i>Green.</i>
Popular History of England	<i>Knight.</i>
Pictorial History of England	
English History for the Use of Schools	<i>Bright.</i>
History of England to James II.	<i>Hume.</i>
History of England from James II. to death of William III.	<i>Macaulay</i>
The Student's Hume	<i>Brewer.</i>
A Child's History of England	<i>Dickens.</i>
History of England to William and Mary	<i>Lingard.</i>
History of England from the Earliest Times	<i>White.</i>
History of England	<i>Guizot.</i>
A Smaller History of England	<i>Smith.</i>
History of England during the Early and Middle Ages,	<i>Pearson.</i>
Constitutional History of England	<i>Hallam.</i>
History of Normandy and England	<i>Palgrave.</i>
Decisive Battles of the World	<i>Creasy.</i>

Select Charters	<i>Stubbs.</i>
The Houses of Lancaster and York	<i>Gairdner.</i>
The Early Plantagenets	<i>Stubbs.</i>
Life and Reign of Richard III.	<i>Gairdner.</i>
Age of Chivalry	<i>Bulfinch.</i>
Lives of the Queens of England	<i>Strickland.</i>
The Crusades	<i>Cox.</i>
Wars of the Roses	<i>Edgar.</i>
History of England from Wolsey to Death of Elizabeth,	<i>Froude.</i>
History of Edward III.	<i>Warburton.</i>
History of Edward III.	<i>Longman.</i>
The Age of Anne	<i>Morris.</i>
The Fall of the Stuarts	<i>Hale.</i>
The Age of Elizabeth	<i>Creighton.</i>
The Era of the Protestant Revolution	<i>Seebohm.</i>
Mary, Queen of Scots	<i>Tytler.</i>
Mary, Queen of Scots	<i>Hasack.</i>
The Puritan Revolution	<i>Gairdner.</i>
Life and Letters of Oliver Cromwell	<i>Carlyle.</i>
Life of Milton	<i>Masson.</i>
Three English Statesmen, Pym, Cromwell, and Pitt	<i>Smith.</i>
History of England from 1820 to 1874	<i>Molesworth.</i>
The Four Georges	<i>Thackeray.</i>
Lectures on Modern History	<i>Arnold.</i>
The Epoch of Reform	<i>McCarthy.</i>
History of the Nineteenth Century	<i>Mackenzie.</i>
History of our own Times	<i>McCarthy.</i>
Dictionary of Dates	<i>Hayden.</i>
Synchronology of History	<i>Hawes.</i>
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II. For Pupils and Others.

BEFORE THE CONQUEST.

History of Alfred the Great	<i>Pauli.</i>
History of Alfred the Great	<i>Hughes.</i>
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The Faerie Queene	<i>Spenser.</i>
The Early Dawn	<i>Mrs. Charles.</i>
Harold the Dauntless	<i>Scott.</i>
Macbeth	<i>Shakspeare.</i>
Cameos of English History	<i>Yonge.</i>
Edwin of Deira (poem)	<i>Alex. Smith.</i>

Idylls of the King	<i>Tennyson.</i>
Ethwold (drama)	<i>Miss Baillie.</i>
Vision of Sir Launfall	<i>Lowell.</i>

WILLIAM I.

A Short History of the Norman Conquest	<i>Freeman</i>
History of William the Conqueror	<i>Abbott.</i>
Decisive Battles of the World (Hastings)	<i>Creasy.</i>
Harold	<i>Bulwer.</i>
Hereward	<i>Kingsley.</i>
Harold (drama)	<i>Tennyson.</i>

WILLIAM II.

History of William Rufus	<i>Freeman.</i>
Age of Chivalry	<i>Bulfinch.</i>
Chivalry and the Crusades	<i>James.</i>
Age of Fable	<i>Bulfinch.</i>
The Children's Crusades	<i>Gray.</i>

HENRY I., ETC.

The Betrothed	<i>Scott.</i>
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RICHARD I.

Life of Richard I.	<i>Abbott.</i>
Richard Cœur de Lion	<i>White.</i>
Richard Cœur de Lion	<i>James.</i>
The Talisman	<i>Scott.</i>
Ivanhoe	<i>Scott.</i>
Maude and Miriam	<i>MacKeever.</i>
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JOHN.

King John	<i>Shakspeare.</i>
Runnymede	<i>Logan.</i>

HENRY III.

The Borderers	<i>Wordsworth</i>
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EDWARD I.

The Prince and the Page	<i>Yonge.</i>
The Days of Bruce	<i>Aguilar.</i>
Tales of a Grandfather (extend into the 18th century),	<i>Scott.</i>
Castle Dangerous	<i>Scott.</i>
Scottish Chiefs	<i>Porter.</i>

EDWARD II.

The Lord of the Isles *Scott.*

EDWARD III.

Halidon Hill (drama) *Scott.*

Piers Plowman *Langland.*

Canterbury Tales *Chaucer.*

The Lances of Linwood *Yonge.*

RICHARD II.

King Richard II. *Shakspeare.*

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Wat Tyler (drama) *Southey.*

Chevy Chase *Old Ballad.*

Merrie England *Ainsworth.*

HENRY IV.

King Henry IV. *Shakspeare.*

Fair Maid of Perth *Scott.*

The White Rose of Langley *Holt.*

HENRY V.

King Henry V. *Shakspeare.*

History of Henry V. *Towle.*

Battle of Agincourt *James.*

A Royal Poet (in Sketch Book) *Irving.*

HENRY VI.

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The Caged Lion *Yonge.*

Joan of Arc *DeQuincy.*

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- Perkin Warbeck *Mrs. Shelley.*

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- King Henry VIII. *Shakspeare.*
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 Anne Boleyn (drama) *Milman.*
 Darnley *James.*
 Windsor Castle *Ainsworth.*
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 Lady of the Lake *Scott.*
 Lives of the Lord Chancellors *Campbell.*
 Stanfield Hall *Smith.*

EDWARD VI.

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 The Constable of the Tower *Ainsworth.*

MARY.

- Queen Mary (drama) *Tennyson.*
 Cardinal Pole *Ainsworth.*
 Robin Tremayne *Holt.*

ELIZABETH.

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JAMES I.

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CHARLES I.

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 Legend of Montrose *Scott.*

THE COMMONWEALTH.

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 On Both Sides of the Sea *Mrs. Charles*
 Rosamond Fane *Lee.*
 The Draytons and Davenants. *Mrs. Charles*

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ANNE.

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 The Old Manor House *Miss Smith.*

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The Virginians	<i>Thackeray.</i>
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Vicar of Wakefield	<i>Goldsmith.</i>
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The Antiquary	<i>Scott.</i>
The King's Own	<i>Maryatt.</i>
Guy Mannering	<i>Scott.</i>
Bracebridge Hall	<i>Irving.</i>
St. Ronan's Well	<i>Scott.</i>
Belinda	<i>Edgeworth.</i>
Adam Bede	<i>George Eliot.</i>
Against the Stream	<i>Mrs. Charles.</i>
The Deserted Village	<i>Goldsmith.</i>
Vanity Fair	<i>Thackeray.</i>
Our Village	<i>Miss Mitford.</i>
Waterloo	<i>Eichmann.</i>
Les Misérables (battle of Waterloo)	<i>Victor Hugo.</i>
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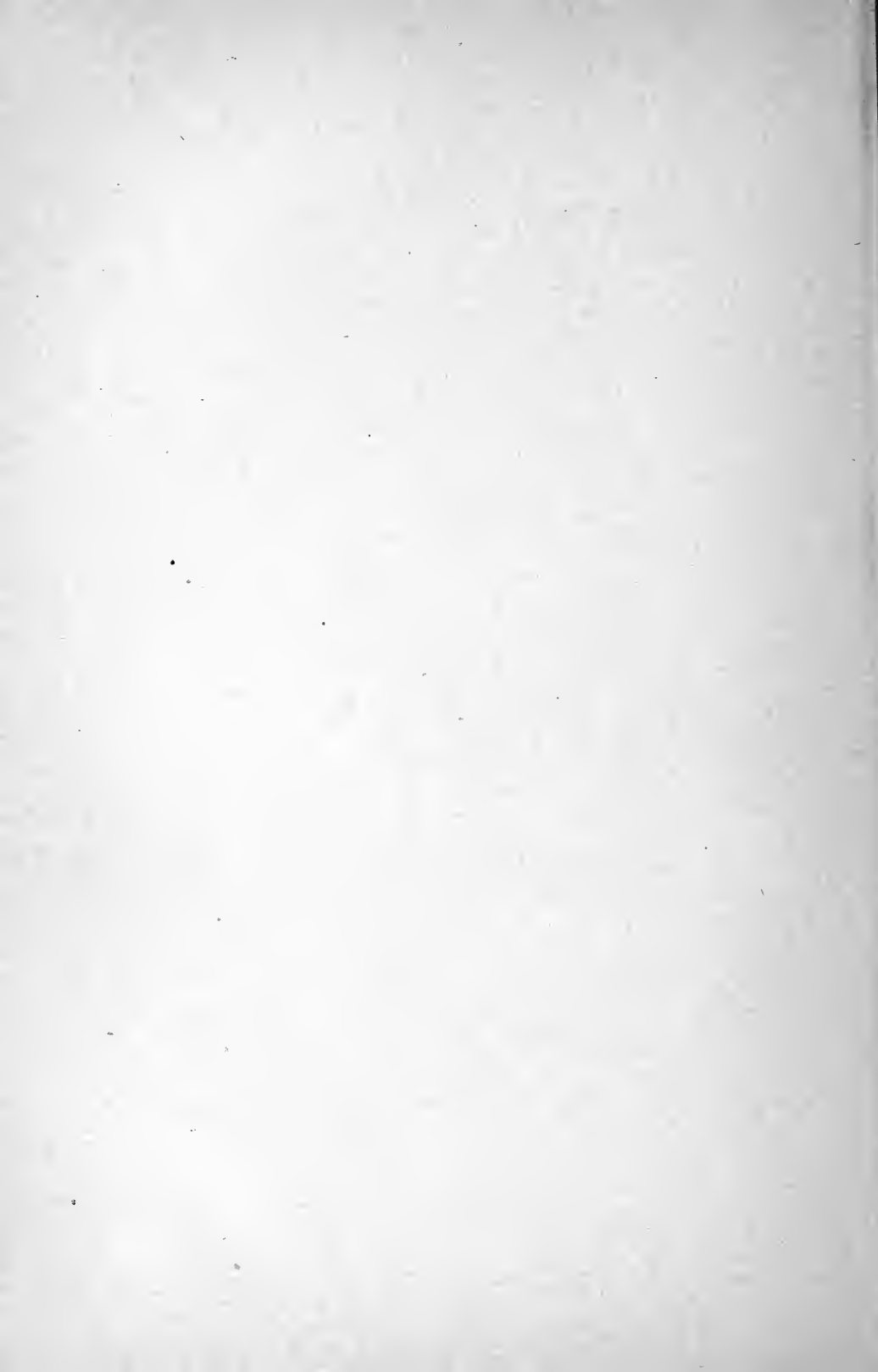
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WILLIAM IV.

Epoch of Reform	<i>McCarthy.</i>
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VICTORIA.

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Oliver Twist	<i>Dickens.</i>
Heir of Redcliffe	<i>Yonge.</i>
Nicholas Nickleby	<i>Dickens.</i>
History of the Nineteenth Century	<i>Mackenzie.</i>
Epoch of Reform	<i>McCarthy.</i>
Bleak House	<i>Dickens.</i>
Lothair	<i>Disraeli.</i>
Martin Chuzzlewit	<i>Dickens.</i>
Alton Locke	<i>Kingsley.</i>
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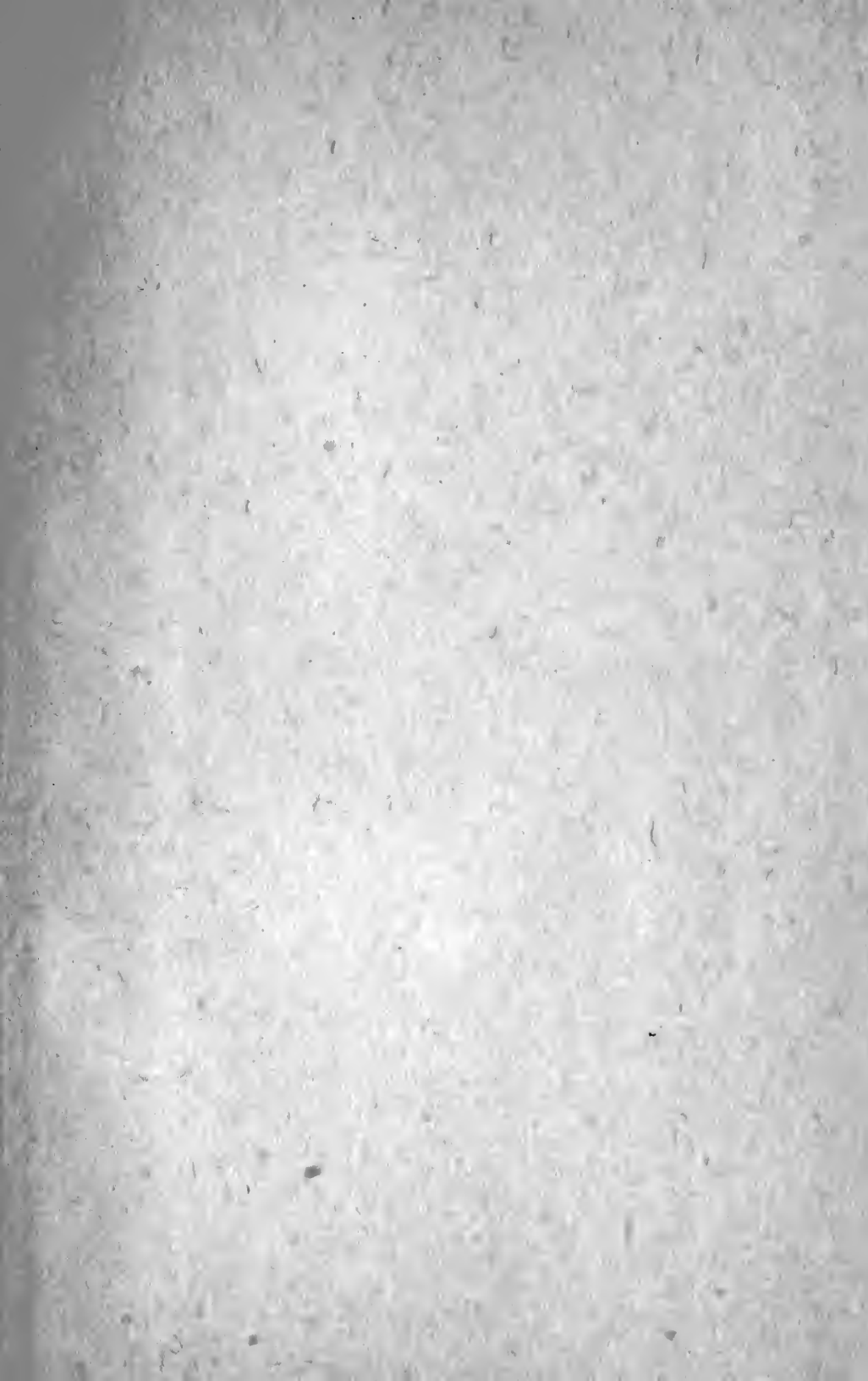
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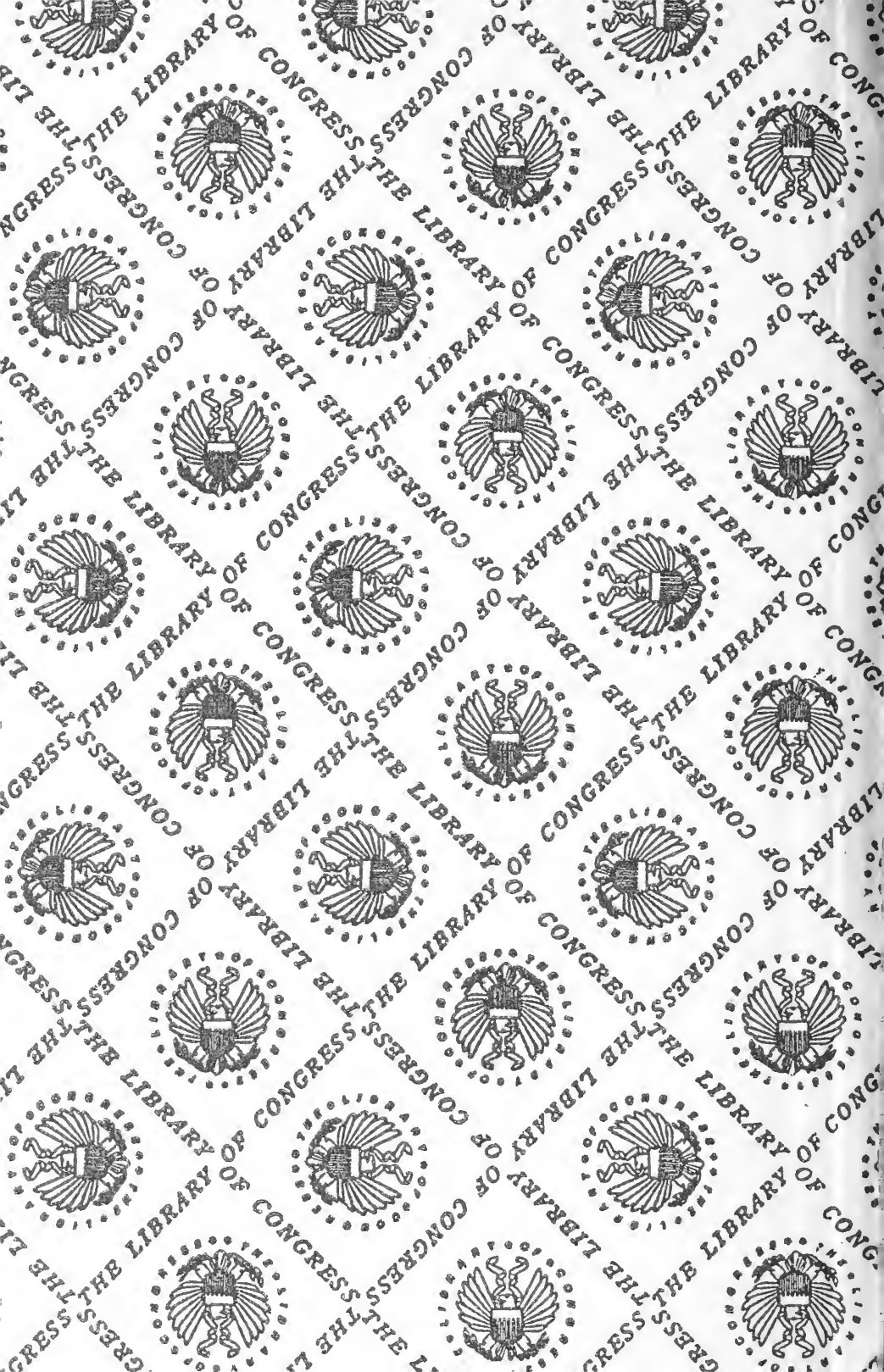
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